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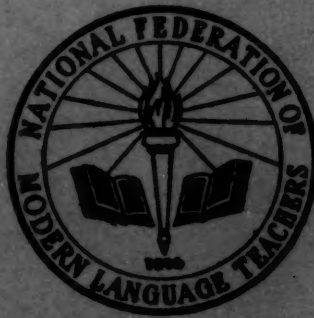
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*The*

# MODERN LANGUAGE JOURNAL



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# The Modern Language Journal

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# The Modern Language Journal

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NOTE—Readers are reminded that the relative order of articles in the *Journal* does not necessarily carry implications as to the comparative merits of contributions. The *Journal* is equally grateful to all its contributors, past, present, and potential, for their co-operation.



## What Others Think of Us

H. C. OLINGER

WE ARE much indebted to Professor A. M. Withers of Concord College, Athens, West Virginia, for this most valuable statement of the possible contribution of modern-language study to music. We are also grateful to our artists, the leading singers, Miss Helen Traubel, Mr. Richard Crooks and Mr. Lauritz Melchior, for their strong testimonials in favor of our subject.

### LANGUAGE AND SONG

Our American students of music are for the most part disconcertingly indifferent to the native languages of songs. Somehow they fondly imagine themselves able to sound the depths of the inner emotions of music's authors without intimate regard for the vehicle of their thoughts. With all the might of their immaturity and provinciality judging instrumentalists solely on fluency, and vocalists on mere color and range, these imperfect amateurs envision technical or mechanical difficulties as the only great obstacles to full success in musical careers, and are not inwardly qualified to adapt interpretation to the spirit and substance of music that reside in the language through which these were called into being.

To put the matter differently, and speaking generally, our native makers of music during their formative years have drifted in all thoughtlessness into close accord with the mass-public which listens to them, that public which applauds loudest when melodies or tone-sequences divorced from thoughts are accidentally warming to hearts still childish, however adult; when, for instance, the *aria* is full of trills, or ends on a high, long-held note, or when, if instrumental, the movement is either cloyingly sweet or particularly fast and furious. The least said in this connection about most of the popular radio music the better.

It is more than difficult to convince musicians and public thus artistically without tradition that all true artists must possess the fundamentals for accurate general knowledge. And it is still harder if possible to prove to them that among these fundamentals is a mixed diet of languages. To persuade our young singers, after they are already "made," that a beatific smile and a pleasing voice, with (if they are women) curls in the latest arrangement and abundant paint on finger nails, are not most of all that is necessary, is perhaps for the moment out of the question. At such a late stage they will not forsake, even in response to the most authoritative counsel on language or other matters, their inherited and environmentally confirmed habits and traits, and will go on with their painful rote-treatment of *Caro Nome* and *Ave Maria*, *Ora Pro Nobis*.

Supposing however that some of those who dream of operatic and

concert careers can be persuaded of the essentiality of foreign language learning, it is in order to remind them that no single language can be assimilated by studying it "in a vacuum." We must know our English basically before we undertake French, German, Italian, Spanish (that is, unless we begin the study of these in early childhood and continue persistently for many years thereafter). But to know English in a thorough-going way it is practically necessary to intermingle Latin. This is a truth whose ultimate realization will startle many singers who were quite sure that Latin died long ago and was buried, and who are not aware (like most of our "Educators") that in making a ridiculous detour from a clearly indicated path, looking for the lines of least resistance, we Americans become the laughing-stock of other peoples as we try half-heartedly, because more or less hopelessly, to learn French and German and the rest. Those who doubt and really want to know what recognized experts think upon this matter have only to apply to the nearest professor of English, Law, Theology, or Philosophy.

Unhappily, as regards all I have said above, there is a certain disagreeable truth that stands forth self-evident. This is that, if there is ever to be a change in favor of languages for music that will set our embryonic musicians to early and steady thinking about the close and necessary connection between them, it can only come through the body of educational administrators and authorities, whose attitudes alone prescribe, in a country like ours, what course fundamental elementary education shall take. But most of our educational theorists, unfriendly or fatally lukewarm to foreign languages, ancient and modern, as a feature of general education, prefer not to admit the necessity of them in any curricular sphere; and many, perhaps most American parents have no clear thought upon the matter, accepting with closed eyes and childlike faith the current natural or artificial "trends" in education, as often as not leading either nowhere at all or else into the blindest of alleys.

Thus I am constrained to end this brief paper as I began it, on a note of pessimism. I am convinced that our native-born would-be singers, except those who prepare themselves well in advance in accordance with the stern requirements and admonitions of the best schools of music, are going to remain untrained in respect to foreign languages, and so debarred from essential musical as well as other culture by a distressing linguistic lameness.

A. M. WITHERS

*Concord College*  
*Athens, West Virginia*

Professor Withers has asked my opinion concerning the value of foreign-language study to the students of music. Although I find this request rather surprising—I had thought the necessity for such study for the

aspiring musician, either instrumental or vocal, was a foregone conclusion—I am glad to try to put into words some of the reasons why I think a knowledge of languages is useful, even essential, to the understanding of music.

Naturally, I would approach the problem from the singer's point of view (which may, after all, be the best for the purpose, since language is an integral part of song). Now, even if a singer thinks that both opera and concerts should be sung entirely in English for American audiences—that is my own belief, and I am doing everything in my power to encourage the production of good, singable translations of the classics of other lands—he or she must realize that it is not always possible to transfer the exact meaning and imagery of a lyric text from one language to another. Every great singer of art-songs who has ever given instructions for their interpretation has begun with the injunction, "Study the text, memorize it, declaim it aloud, understand its every shade of meaning, before you even approach the music." In opera, too, it is certainly true that even the most expressive music tells only part of the story—that the words are inescapably important. It seems to me, therefore, that before undertaking to present any foreign work in English the singer should give careful study to the original text, to gain an understanding of the thoughts, the sounds, and the rhythms which first inspired the composer to set a poem to music, or, in the case of the opera, to know exactly what words the librettist used to express a character's thoughts. And there is nothing more ridiculously wrong than to learn a foreign-language text by rote and sing it without having the full meaning of each word.

There is another less tangible, but equally important, reason for the musician's study of foreign languages, and it applies to composers, instrumentalists, and conductors, as well as to singers. The richest and most beautiful interpretation of any musical work comes from the breadth of the interpreter's experience, the depth of his understanding of life, the fulness of his knowledge of the world's beauty. It is therefore good that the musician should acquaint himself, so far as possible, with the great minds and noble thoughts of all times. Not only a technical knowledge of music, but participation in the whole world's cultural heritage, should be the aim of any sincere artist. And so one's musical understanding is increased by every work of literature he reads—and great literature should be read in the author's own words, not at second hand through a translator. To one who knows no foreign languages there lie beyond locked doors tremendous riches of the spirit—even in the tongues of nations that are now our enemies—which he needs to strengthen his own spirit and to perfect the art which he himself wishes to give to the world.

HELEN TRAUBEL<sup>1</sup>

<sup>1</sup> Miss Traubel's unique position as the first "all-American" Wagnerian soprano in the history of the Metropolitan Opera should give her ideas a particular interest for the new generation of American musicians.

Answering your letter of December 21, in which you ask me for a statement on the value of foreign-language study in relation to music, I certainly think that every singer should have at least a general knowledge of French, Italian, and German. The standard classical repertoire is almost entirely written for those languages, and even though the greatly improved English translations of today are becoming popular, no translation can possibly convey the complete meaning and shades of meaning of a text. This still holds true, even though, within the last year, I have seen English versions of foreign texts which are masterpieces of this particular line of work. Knowledge of a language, too, and some familiarity with its literature, brings understanding of a national culture, which is essential to proper interpretation.

RICHARD CROOKS

I agree absolutely with your point of view, and regret the lack of interest in languages which seems to be evidenced by the students. I am amazed to hear that any one can think of following a musical career without including the study of French, German, and Italian. I am also very much surprised at the state of affairs in this connection, as I was of opinion that we in the United States had gotten away from mixing music and war.

I don't know what young singers are thinking of when they drop the study of languages, as such knowledge is absolutely essential for a successful musical career. In my opinion it is just as ridiculous and short-sighted for a singer to neglect the languages, even if they are those of our enemies, as it was for Hitler to burn the books and poetry of non-Aryan authors.

The language and culture of a country have nothing to do with its politics, and I need not tell you that it is to kill bigotry of this kind that we are fighting today.

I sincerely hope that your students will realize that a voice alone does not make a singer, and that in order to achieve artistry one must absorb all the knowledge that one can. This country affords such wonderful opportunities for young people that the best advice I can give them is that they take good advantage of everything they can absorb, and, by all means, study as many languages as they can.

LAURITZ MELCHIOR

"FOREIGN LANGUAGES, AMERICA'S NEED FOR THE FUTURE!"

## *A Unit in the Inductive Teaching of Grammar*

WINTHROP H. RICE

*Syracuse University, Syracuse, N. Y.*

BEFORE this unit in the inductive teaching of grammar is presented in detail, a few general remarks seem in order. There is some variation in the understanding of what "induction" means and how it can be applied; it would, therefore, be well to clarify this point at the start. Furthermore, the majority of articles dealing with teaching procedures seems to deal with first-year work, especially beginning work. Yet there are myriads of problems in the teaching of more advanced classes, problems which are just as perplexing as those confronting the teacher of a beginning class. Since, in addition to all this, "induction" is usually used to refer to the initial treatment of a topic, a unit has been chosen that would normally fall beyond the first year and involves the review of material already covered. In this way, we can observe the use of induction both for review purposes and for the presentation of new material.

What, then, is induction? It corresponds in a general way to the procedure outlined in the Herbartian principles of teaching.<sup>1</sup> It is the process of going from the known to the unknown and from the particular to the general. One of its basic psychological principles is that the pupil will gain most when he himself is most active in the acquisition of knowledge. Under the inductive approach, the teacher's function is less to "teach" than to help the pupils learn. This is fundamental. Yet, at the same time, it is one of the most difficult things for the experienced teacher to do if he has "taught" for any length of time in the older sense of the term. It is not a case of the teacher's telling the class about the material or explaining the new grammatical element in advance—as is the usual concept—and it is hard for the teacher to keep himself as much in the background as is desirable. Yet, without the teacher to guide and suggest, the inductive process would fail. So that inductive teaching is still teaching, but in a different sense of the word.

As applied to the teaching of grammar in the foreign language class, the inductive approach in its purest form would obviate the need of a grammar text, but few teachers are ready to go that far. However, the grammar text can be relegated largely to the position of a reference work in an inductively developed class program. Discussion of the details of such a plan is beyond the scope of this article, but some of the principles will be implied in the specific application of induction to the unit under

<sup>1</sup> For a brief statement, especially as regards language teaching, cf. Winthrop H. Rice, "General Considerations on Unit Lesson Plans in Modern Language Teaching," *Modern Language Journal*, XXVIII (Dec. '44), 650-651.



consideration. The general principles of induction can be applied, however, to any but the most formal type of grammatical instruction. Whether the course be based on the "sociosemantic" ideas as described by Kaulfers,<sup>2</sup> on the "intensive" type of work illustrated in the numerous reports of ASTP courses,<sup>3</sup> or on the somewhat more traditional lines embodied in the majority of commonly used high school texts, the teacher's classroom procedure can be inductive. There is great advantage to the pupil in learning through his own efforts—under the skilled guidance of the teacher. New materials become correlated with the old, the very fact of the pupil's own activity in the learning process tends to impress the newly acquired knowledge more deeply and more permanently on his mind. In this connection, the proper guidance of the teacher is obviously of utmost importance lest faulty knowledge become the recipient of these psychological advantages.

In the development of the course, the new grammatical element may arise in a number of ways. It may, for example, come up simply because the next lesson in the textbook brings it up; or it may appear "functionally" as in the case of the unit portrayed here. In any case, the procedures are much the same once the matter has come up—except for the "textbook slave." If the lesson in the textbook contains a passage in the foreign language designed to illustrate the new grammatical element, that passage should be studied first, no matter where it appears in the physical setup of the book. I am thinking specifically of one book in which the "reading passage" is found at the beginning of the second half of the unit, after the grammar (and, incidentally, the vocabulary) has been presented deductively in the first half. Yet the material is readily adaptable to induction by the simple process of skipping a few pages in the new unit and taking up the "reading passage" for inductive study. In this particular case, the material is excellently composed for such an approach and the first half of the lesson becomes a reference section for later use.

When the new element is to become the subject of a unit of some length, the effectiveness of induction is greatly reduced if the teacher introduces it with some such remark as "We are now going to study the partitive construction (or the uses of *ser* and *estar*, or whatever it may be)." It is for the class as a whole to develop cooperatively the principles involved in the new construction, always under the watchful guidance of the teacher, and only after this has been done is the construction given its name. In this procedure, incidentally, grammatical terms tend to lose their terrors

<sup>2</sup> Walter V. Kaulfers, *Modern Languages for Modern Schools*, New York, McGraw-Hill, 1942.

<sup>3</sup> Cf. "Annotated Bibliography of Modern Language Methodology," *Modern Language Journal*, XXIX (May '45), 431-458, especially items listed in classification group II. Cf. also "Recommendations of the Special Committee, etc." *Modern Language Journal*, XXIX (Feb. '45), 155-160 (an addition to the original report).

for the pupils since the significance of the terms themselves appears as an almost necessary part of the final formulation of the principle.

When the new element arises "functionally" from a text or the situation of the moment, then there is no set passage from which induction can be made as in the case just described. Here it is up to the ingenuity of the teacher to provide the necessary background from which the class may derive a knowledge of the new principle. In theory, at least, it is possible for the teacher to have handy at all times a collection of short passages in the foreign language with which to illustrate the constructions most likely to appear in this way. At any rate, he will be prepared to present a set of cogent examples sufficient in number and variety to convey the details of what is to be presented. When, as in the case about to be described, the new element is an extension of a principle already partly familiar to the class, the starting point is obvious: a brief review of the familiar material. On the other hand, when the new point of grammar is an entirely fresh departure, the teacher must make the examples used, starting with the one which has given rise to the discussion, correlate with points already familiar. For example, if the new element is a subjunctive seen for the first time, the correlation would be with indicative forms and uses already known, and the development would start with an analysis on that basis. In this particular case, it would depend on the aims of the class and the general situation whether the discussion would go beyond the particular use met in context and involve the subjunctive as a whole or some restricted part of the broad question. The teacher's judgment and experience would provide the answer here. Probably such a large segment of grammar as the subjunctive would not be treated fully the first time it was encountered; smaller units, such as the apocopation of adjectives in Spanish or the use of *en* with a present participle in French, might be taken up completely and at once.

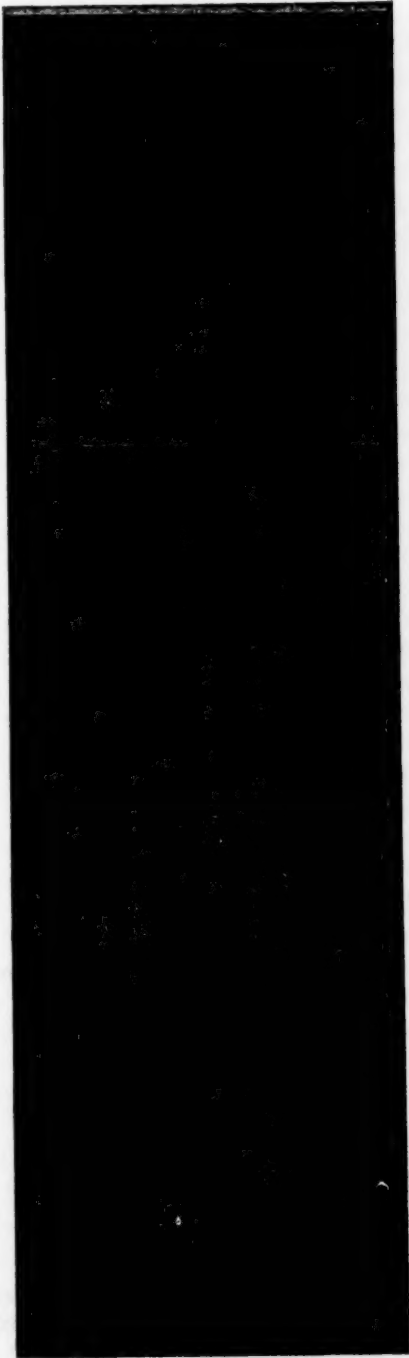
Enough has now been said to provide the general theoretical background against which the following unit should be viewed. To be sure, the situation is purely hypothetical as presented here (and probably somewhat idealized), but it can be said that the author has used this particular procedure in the way described with gratifying success in the teaching of this construction. It is assumed that the class is one in the second year of the study of Spanish in high school; that the procedure in this class has been inductive from the start and that, consequently, the class is familiar with the general pattern of development. It should be noted in passing that the sudden introduction of an inductive procedure in a class not accustomed to it may not be immediately successful with the same ease that would appear in a group trained from the start in inductive practices. Yet with, patience and perseverance, a deductively initiated group can be switched to follow an inductive approach. It is further assumed that the construction to be analyzed is met for the first time in the course of a reading lesson, and

consequently the need for a knowledge of the construction is now felt for the first time. The fact that the class feels the necessity for an understanding of it will help a great deal in the motivation toward learning it and toward adding the new idea to that which has already been learned. And finally it is assumed that everything in the presentation—grammar, vocabulary, terminology—except for the new construction is already familiar to the class. In such a presentation, new vocabulary, new verb forms, etc. would only complicate matters and tend to destroy the effectiveness of the inductive exposition by detracting from the full attention to the new material. In so far as possible only a single new element should appear unless, as here, there is a minor detail that seems necessary or desirable for the sake of completeness.

The reader is urged to make careful note of the use made of the blackboard.<sup>4</sup> A little experience will enable the teacher to plan, within the limits of available board space, the relative position of materials on the board almost at once. In a course conducted fully along the lines described here, there would necessarily be a more or less standard pattern varying only in detail from unit to unit. There will be a place reserved, for example, for the final formulations of the principles (e.g. the left side of the board); the examples involved in the presentation of the new construction should logically occupy the central position, while examples of familiar material needed for illustration or review would be placed to the right. A system of numbers and letters can easily be applied, as illustrated. The class will inscribe the material in loose-leaf notebooks after the unit has been completed and the principles formulated so that each pupil will have the same set of examples and the same statement for purposes of review. One of the functions of a general periodic review will be to arrange these notes, which have arisen without apparent order, in an orderly, perhaps topical, way. To facilitate the arrangement—or rearrangement—it is important that each new topic be begun on a fresh sheet in the notebook. This whole procedure amounts essentially to having the class compose its own grammar under the guidance of the teacher.

After the new material has been worked out in class, exercises and tests will be done in order to fix the new knowledge in the pupils' minds. The procedures here are hardly different from the best types of exercise used in deductive procedures. In fact, without deductive *application* of the material, induction would lose much of its retentive value. There must still be some form of exercise or drill and some form of testing to round out the total unit. Since these features are found everywhere, there is little need for expanding the presentation of this unit beyond a mere mention of these applying devices. This is embodied in the assignment given at the end of the inductive lesson.

<sup>4</sup> The reader can follow the development of the unit by reference to the photograph of the board, p. 469.



Photograph by Keith J. Kennedy, University Registrar, Syracuse University, Syracuse, New York

Since some of the readers of this unit may not be familiar with Spanish, the conversation between the teacher and the pupils is given in English. Under other circumstances, it would be desirable to have the talk entirely in Spanish. Again, this depends on the way in which the class was begun at the very start. When induction and the use of the foreign language are the normal procedures from the beginning, many difficulties remove themselves almost automatically. Naturally, in the case of the present unit, the structure and vocabulary of the conversation would be somewhat simpler, but the ideas are not beyond the vocabulary of a class such as has been assumed under the conditions assumed.

\* \* \*

#### The Use of *del que*, etc. in Spanish

(As the scene opens, the class of ten pupils is indulging in silent reading on Brazil. It is the usual procedure of the class that a student who is puzzled by a passage may ask the help of the teacher by raising his hand. John, not a very good student, finds himself stumped by the sentence: *El Brasil produce más café del que pueden comprar los Estados Unidos.*)

John (raising his hand): I don't get the idea of this sentence.

Teacher: That involves a point that we haven't met before, John. I think it would be a good idea for us all to look at it together. (Writes the sentence on the board, high in the central section, so that the class need not keep looking from board to book and back again.) *El Brasil produce más café del que pueden comprar los Estados Unidos.* (A space is left between *del* and *que*.) This is really an extension of something we've already had some time ago. What is it, John, do you see it?

John: Is it some kind of comparison?

Teacher: Yes, but please tell me, don't ask me.<sup>6</sup> It's a form of comparison.

But before we go into this new type, it might be a good idea to review what we've already had. Will someone give us an example of the simplest kind of comparison? Yes, Helen?

Helen (the star pupil of the class): *Soy más alta que mi hermana.*

Teacher: Good. (Writes it on the board, high and to the right.) That is a comparison using what kind of word, what part of speech?

Class: Adjective

Teacher: That's right. Now I want an example using a noun. Henry?

Henry: *Tengo más dinero que Vd.*

Teacher: Right! (Writes it under the first example to the right.) This is the simplest form. Will someone make a general statement? Helen?

Helen: Comparisons are expressed by *más* in front of a noun or adjective and *que* after it.

<sup>6</sup> Pupils often indicate a lack of self-confidence by answering questions with questions, as here. An affirmative mind-set should be encouraged; if the answer, stated with affirmation is wrong it can be corrected. A perpetual mental question-mark is an unhealthy thing and can seriously affect a pupil's whole point of view toward his work.



Teacher: That's pretty good, but there are one or two things that could improve it. Well, Paul?

Paul: Could an adverb be used instead of a noun or adjective?

Teacher: Yes, that's one thing I had in mind. Let's add "adverb" to Helen's statement. Anything else?

John: Isn't *menos* used . . . I mean, *menos* is used sometimes instead of *más*.

Teacher: There we have it! I'll write the whole statement over here at the side. (Writes at the left while saying it slowly.) "Comparisons are generally expressed by *más* or *menos* in front of a noun, adjective or adverb followed by *que* to introduce the second part." But we want an example with an adverb. Dorothy, can you give one?

Dorothy: *Mi madre escribe más bien que yo.*

Teacher: Oh, oh! Careful! What's the matter there? (Nods to Helen who has her hand up.)

Helen: It isn't *más bien*, it's *mejor*.

Teacher: That's right, "*Mi madre escribe mejor que yo.*" There are a few adjectives and adverbs that have special forms to be used in comparisons. You'll find those listed in your grammars so we won't take the time to list them now. Dorothy, be sure to look them up. (Writes the example under the other two at the right.) Now we have the general principle all set. How about the two special things we learned before?

Arline: Well, there was something about using *de* instead of *que*.

Teacher: Yes, but what was it?

Arline: I don't remember just what it was.

Teacher: Who does? Who'll give us an example? Helen?

Helen: How about, *Hay más de diez alumnos en la clase?*

Teacher: That's good. (Writes it on the board under the others.) Can anyone state the principle we evolved before? John, please don't look back in your notebook, try to get it from what we're doing *now*. What do you see in Helen's example that's a little different from the others? (Several suggestions are made, such as the presence of *Hay*, until the teacher turns again to Helen.) Well, Helen, why did you use *de* instead of *que*?

Helen: Because there's a number right after it.

Teacher: That's right. As Helen says, when a numeral would immediately follow *que*, *de* is used instead of *que*. (Writes the statement on the board at the left under the general statement, leaving room between "*que*," and "*de*" for an addition about to be developed.) But there's one thing we must notice. What kind of sentence is this, and I don't mean simple, compound or complex?<sup>6</sup>

Evelyn: Do you mean declarative?

Teacher: Yes, it's declarative, but what else?

Evelyn: Affirmative.

<sup>6</sup> This avoids the possibility of a lengthy digression.

Teacher: Good. Let's add to our statement the words, "in an affirmative sentence." (Writes it in the space left for it.) Now, if we have to put it in, it stands to reason that a negative sentence must require something else. Will someone put Helen's sentence in the negative? George?

George: *No hay más . . . más . . . más que diez alumnos en la clase.*

Teacher (smiling at George's hesitation and writing the example under the others): You got it finally, didn't you? That's it. What did you do, George?

George: Why, I used *que* in the negative sentence.

Teacher: All right, then, we add to our statement that "in a negative sentence *que* ordinarily is used even in front of a numeral." (Writes this as an addition to the statement. The class then reads the principles aloud while the teacher points to the examples involved in each part.) You notice that I inserted the word "ordinarily." There's a little quirk to this that we haven't met; it's rather uncommon, but let's get the picture complete. Here are two sentences. *No tengo más que cuatro lápices.* (Picks up four pencils from the desk making sure that the class sees them; then writes the sentence on the board.) That's the first one. Here's the second. *No tengo más de cuatro lápices.* (Picks up three pencils, shows them, writes the sentence on the board.) Does anyone see the difference? I've apparently violated what we said before in the second sentence. Mildred, you haven't said much today, do you see anything?

Mildred: Well, the first time you picked up four pencils and the second time you only had three, but I don't see where the Spanish mentioned anything but four pencils.

Teacher: Look at the sentences on the board. What's the difference? Wait. In saying the second one, I could have picked up one, two or three pencils, but not four.

Mildred: Oh, I think I get it. When you used *que* you meant that you didn't have more than four but you did have four; but when you used *de* you didn't have more than four and you might have had less. Is that right?

Teacher: Absolutely. We don't usually bother with English translations, but in this case, translation will help us to see the difference. Beverly, will you give the English for the first one?

Beverly: "I don't have more than four pencils."

Teacher: That's one way, but wouldn't that do for the second one too?

Beverly: I guess so.

Teacher: Can't you give another translation for the first that wouldn't do for the second, one that would imply that while I don't have more than four, I *do* have four?

Beverly: I don't see how. (Several hands go up.)

Teacher: Well . . . Paul?

Paul: "I don't have more than four pencils, but I do have four" (laughter).

Teacher (joining in the laughter): That's just what it means, but the Spanish doesn't have to go to the trouble of adding the last part. I'm afraid that won't do. John? No? Arline?

Arline: I have *only* four pencils?

Teacher: Ah! At last! But there's no question mark. Remember what I've said about asking instead of telling. That's it: "I have only four pencils" for *No tengo más que cuatro lápices*, and that can't be said of the second one which, if it must be translated, would be "I don't have more than four pencils" and only that. But this has been just a little side-trip. I don't think it's common enough for us to put in our notebooks; I simply wanted to call it to your attention and to show you once more how small details can make a good deal of difference; we want to get so that we can sense these differences in Spanish as much as we can. Here we've not only seen the difference between Spanish *no más que* and *no más de*, but also between the English *only* and *not more than*; in both cases the latter is vaguer in its implication than the former. Now let's get on to the new part and the answer to John's original question. He was stumped by the sentence: *El Brasil produce más café del que pueden comprar los Estados Unidos*. We've already decided that this is a comparison of some sort. How many things are involved in a comparison, how many elements?

Class: Two.

Teacher: All right. Now look at all the examples we've had in review and at the sentence John asked about. The clue is in the second element, the part following *que* or *de*. John, it was your question so I'll give you first chance.

John: I don't see any difference except that the one I asked about has both *de* and *que*.

Teacher: Yes, but what follows the *del que*?

John: A clause? . . . I mean, a clause. (Teacher smiles.)

Teacher: A clause. Exactly. And what does the clause have that the second parts of the others don't have?

John: A verb.

Teacher: Now we're getting somewhere. Apparently, then, when the second part contains a verb—that is, a finite verb as we've defined them—we have a different way of introducing it. Here are some other examples. (The teacher writes them under the original sentence in the center of the board, numbering them 1 to 6. A space is left to be filled in in each. Teacher pronounces while writing.) The original sentence will be number 1, here are the others:

- |  |                     |
|--|---------------------|
| 2. Este tintero contiene más tinta de la | que contiene aquél. |
| 3. Aquel hombre compra más libros de los | que lee.            |

4. El restaurante tiene más mesas de las                    que necesita.
5. El camino era más largo de lo                    que yo creía.
6. El carpintero construyó la casa más rápidamente de lo                    que  
había prometido.

Now, then, what do you notice about these sentences?

Henry: There's a space in front of *que*. What's it for?

Teacher: I left it purposely for reasons that you'll see in a minute. Of course, in actual use, there's no space, especially in oral use. Arline?

Arline: The thing in front of *que* is different except in the last two.

Teacher: Good. Does anyone see anything else? Evelyn?

Evelyn: The article that goes with *de* seems to change.

Teacher: Right! Why?

Evelyn: I see. It's the same gender and number as the noun in the first part. But what about *lo*?

Teacher: You took the words right out of my mouth. Your answer is right, though, for the first four. Now we can fill in the spaces in the first four with *café, tinta, libros* and *mesas*. (Writes these into the examples, enclosing them in parentheses.) In other words, it's simply a case of the same noun being understood but not expressed, isn't it? Only the article is repeated. Now, how about the last two? I'll give you a hint; the difference between them and the first four is found in the first part of the comparison. We've said that the second part is a clause. What kind of expression is the first part?

Helen (after some study of the examples): In the first four sentences the first part is a noun. In the last two it isn't.

Teacher: That's the idea. What kinds of word do we have in the last two?

Helen: An adjective, *largo*, in the fifth, and an adverb, *rápidamente*, in the sixth.

Teacher: Now, then, why is *lo* used instead of a masculine or feminine article? We can insert into the spaces the words *largo* and *rápidamente*. (Does so.) Does anyone remember about the use of the neuter article *lo* with an adjective or adverb? What does it mean?

Dorothy: It means "that which is . . ."

Teacher: Yes, or sometimes it can be better expressed in English by ". . . ness." Here we'd say *lo largo*, "the longness" or "length" and *lo rápidamente*, the "rapidness" (if I may coin a word) or "rapidity." "The road was longer than (the longness) I thought"—"The carpenter built the house more rapidly than (the rapidity) he had promised." Of course, we realize that that isn't good English and we'd never say it that way ourselves; it ought to show you, though, how the Spanish construction conveys the idea to the Spaniard through the understanding of the ideas in parenthesis. Now study these examples, and then we'll make up our statement of the new principle, as we always do.

(After allowing some time for analysis by the class) Well, is anyone ready? Yes, John? I hope you have it, for it was you who brought it up.

John: It looks to me as if we could say something like this: if the second part of a comparison is a clause you use this long way of saying "than."

Teacher: That's fairly close, but I don't like to see that you are still thinking of English. The Spaniard doesn't know nor care how we say "than" in English. He has a connecting expression between the two parts. But you're on the right track otherwise. Yes Beverly?

Beverly: When the second part of a comparison is a clause, it is connected to the first part by *de* plus an article plus *que*.

Teacher: Good, but let's be more specific. When do we use the various forms of the article?

Beverly: Well, if it's a noun in the first part, we use the proper form of the article to agree with it; if it's an adjective or adverb, we use *lo*.

Teacher: That's the idea. Now suppose I phrase it a little more formally for the notebooks, and then we'll copy down the whole thing as we put in the numbers and letters. Here's the way I'd put it: (Writes at the left of the board) "When, in a comparison, the first part is a noun and the second part a clause, they are joined by the variable form of the connective—*del que, de la que, de los que, de las que*—according to the gender and number of the noun." You see, in that way we specify the forms as well as when they are used. Then we go on: (At this point, the statements already written have filled the available space in the left section, and the teacher draws a line under the examples in the central section and writes the next part under it.) "When the first part is an adjective or adverb, and the second part a clause, the connective is *de lo que*." Now to be sure, that looks very formal, but I think that with our discussion you can see *why* it works that way, and that's the important thing. All right, now we'll rapidly go over the whole thing numbering and lettering the statements and examples to correspond to each other. (This is done with the teacher reading each statement, giving the essential parts roman numerals and less important parts small letters as they are read. Corresponding examples are similarly labelled. The examples of the new construction retain their arabic numerals to set them off from the review examples.)

Now, then, tomorrow we shall do a few exercises on this business of connecting the two parts of a comparison. I shall expect each of you to have at least one example of each of the kinds we have seen today. Do them in your own words and have them concern something in which you are interested. You may start work on them now in the few minutes that are left.

\* \* \*

On the following day, the pupils will hand in their original sentences for



checking; these will be returned for any corrections the next day. The teacher will have prepared, either especially for this class or as a part of a general stock of material, exercises on this construction embodying the various principles. These exercises will be of the fill-in type as being the best suited for this particular construction. Other constructions might demand other types of exercise: mutations of one kind or another, substitutions, completions, etc.

After the unit has been completed with assignments and exercises corrected (as well as a test, if deemed advisable), the teacher will make note for future reference of things that went especially well and of things that seemed a bit obscure. For example, here the simple act of picking up four pencils one time and three another aided considerably in the understanding of the "side-trip." This will be noted as an effective procedure not only for this construction but for any others in which specific quantities are involved. On the other hand, remembering the laughter caused by Paul's so-called translation, the teacher will try to find a better way of getting at the idea than the one used here. While no actual damage was done in this case, there could conceivably be cases in which an injudicious question would muddle matters almost beyond repair.

Once more it should be pointed out that, to one seeing only the final statement as worked out and presented in the accompanying photograph, the results may *seem* quite on the formal side; however, the fact that the formulation of the principle follows the discussion by the class itself removes the formality from everything but the appearance. The work ends with a formal statement rather than begins with one. The statement is now in concise form, with its examples, and is ready for review purposes. The whole procedure has grown naturally out of a classroom situation in which at least one member of the class has felt the need of the construction. The larger the class, the greater the chances are that if one person feels such a need others will also, so that the time of the class as a whole is not wasted in filling the need of a single individual. Even if, in this case, some of the brighter pupils such as Helen had sensed the meaning of the *del que*, they have not suffered in the inductive treatment of the question.

The reader should note how the teacher opens each new part of the discussion by some sort of leading question or statement to prepare the class for what is coming; the discussion is based on analysis of visible material; the stock of examples comes as much as possible from the pupils, being supplied by the teacher only when the pupils could not be expected to supply them. It may seem to some that this procedure is difficult for both pupils and teachers, but a little experience with it will show that, while it may be slower at the start, it pays dividends in the long run and gives all concerned a sense of power and achievement not derived from formal, deductive instruction.

## *Language Objectives of the Secondary Schools in the Post-War Period*

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(*Author's summary.*—The selection of a language and the particular skill to be emphasized in the case of a given language student in the secondary school should depend upon the student's needs and interests.)

IN THE light of the recent experience of the Army with languages in the A. S. T. P., language teachers at all levels have begun to reexamine and to reevaluate language objectives and teaching methods. Innumerable lectures have been delivered on the merits and defects of both the Army program and the methods now prevalent in most schools.

Many of our boys who had studied languages at school had never acquired a working conversational knowledge of them. As a result, when they were suddenly cast on foreign shores, they discovered that, from the practical point of view, the time and effort spent in language study at school had been wasted. The Army, however, moved quickly to remedy the situation through a specially organized language program. Many laymen and teachers came to accept conversation as the only worth-while objective to be achieved in the study of a language. With this objective in mind, it was natural enough for them to accept the aural-oral method as the means of achieving it. The utterances of these men on the subject leave the impression that a linguistic panacea has been discovered.

Others have expressed scepticism concerning both the wisdom of accepting conversation as an only or primary aim and the possibility of realizing a program similar to that of the Army in the average college or secondary school. On the other hand, in an effort to profit by the experience of the Army, universities like Yale, Princeton, Syracuse, Cornell, Wisconsin, and others have instituted experimental courses in modern languages.

All this is bound to have its effects on language teaching in secondary schools. Just what these effects will be will depend upon what we allow them to be. This paper is an attempt to contribute to the now prevailing discussion from which might eventually emerge something constructive which will serve as a guide to be followed by teachers of languages.

The modern secondary school offers a variety of curricula designed to meet the needs of the community in which it is located. Besides the college preparatory course, the commercial and general courses offer languages to the students. Are all the students at this level to pursue the same objectives in foreign languages? Should they all learn to speak French, German, Spanish, or Italian, because G. I. Joe, on his arrival in North Africa or Marseille, discovered that a speaking knowledge of French was essential

for him in order to get around? If so, what degree of perfection should he seek?

If the soldier who landed in Africa asserted that everyone should learn to speak French, and only French, the soldier having landed in Italy, and having felt the need of Italian, would laugh at him, and vice versa. From the point of view of both men, what they needed was most essential. What skill each needed depended upon where he was, and what he was destined to do. One needed Italian, another French, and still others Arabic, English, Spanish, or German.

Therefore, it seems to me that the skill to be taught a given student should depend upon the objectives that he is pursuing within the framework of a given curriculum, and the prospects for the immediate use of the acquired skill. It is probable that henceforth we shall be more internationally minded, and we shall travel more extensively beyond the barriers of the United States. For the language students who envision an immediate prospect for foreign travel, the primary objective should unquestionably be conversational skill. It is, nevertheless, very probable that a great majority of our students will never leave the country. Among them will be students who study languages at school for various reasons. Obviously, for these students a speaking knowledge can not be the only, or even the primary, objective.

Conversational skill is acquired with difficulty and lost with great ease within a comparatively short time, unless used constantly. Moreover, many of the colloquial terms of highly idiomatic nature used in everyday life are not found with great frequency in ordinary reading matter. For a boy or girl to expend all the time necessary for an active command of very idiomatic expressions which he never expects to have the opportunity to use actively, and seldom passively, would be very foolish. He could spend his time much more profitably by learning passively many idioms frequently encountered in any kind of reading and words and idioms of technical nature which would interest him, because of their relationship to his special field of interest. Under such circumstances, he would be much more likely to get immediate returns and hence immediate satisfaction from his language studies.

Viewing the problem from this standpoint, we can see how the very choice of language should depend upon the objectives of the student. No single language should be pushed ahead of the others or propagandized as of general cultural or practical utility. The French teacher must avoid attempting to entice all students into his department by appealing to them on the ground that France has maintained a high level of civilization through the centuries. On the other hand, the Spanish teacher must refrain from trying to win all language students on grounds of practicality made possible by our close relations with Latin America. By the same token,

we must take care not to neglect the languages of our enemies. It is just as useful to know the language of the enemy as it is to know that of a friend. We need men and women who know one or more of the many languages spoken in the world. Which they choose should depend upon their peculiar needs and interests. The country will eventually profit from their knowledge.

What objectives should be pursued by a student of Spanish, for example, in a commercial course in secondary school? Here, probably, is a good case for the advocate of the aural-oral skill, provided that in taking the course the student is motivated by utilitarian rather than by cultural aims. Certainly it would be logical for a person interested in engaging in business activity related to Latin America to wish to know how to speak Spanish. He should, however, know more. He would, without doubt, need a knowledge of technical terms pertaining to his field. He should also know something about commercial correspondence. In addition, he could very well use a knowledge of the land and people of Latin America. This may seem like a program too ambitious to be achieved in three years of language study in a secondary school. Given average students, I think a creditable piece of work can be produced, especially if there is cooperation between the department of Spanish and the department of Social Studies.

Students in the general course should follow the type of course which will be of most benefit to them. If they expect to travel abroad soon, they have to learn conversation. If, however, they wish to learn the language simply as a key to its technical, historical, artistic, or literary treasures, they should be taught to read, and conversation should be used only to the degree that it facilitates the acquisition of the reading skill.

When provision has been made for the above two groups of students, there still remains the problem of deciding upon the objectives of the college preparatory students. In the case of the latter, the school is faced with the problem of not only preparing them in such a manner as to make possible their entrance into college but also their satisfactory continuance of work at the college level. Today, colleges, while accepting students on the basis of their performance on the achievement tests, differ greatly in the types of courses they offer to freshmen. Some emphasize conversation, others reading, while still others demand both. In fact, sections in the same course are apt to differ according to the instructor. Since, at the time that they begin the study of a foreign language, the vast majority of the students neither know what college they will choose or be able to enter, nor what vocation they will eventually follow, the only thing to do is to try to give them a grounding in the fundamentals of the language, namely: reading, writing, speaking, and aural comprehension.

Does this mean the retention of the traditional courses as taught in our secondary schools? It may, or it may not. If the traditional course makes

good use of the aural-oral technique to teach reading and writing, then it should continue in its present form. If it does not, it needs to be reorganized. For some time language teachers have accepted conversational skill and aural comprehension as two of their main objectives, but actually conversation has never been used to full advantage. The prevalent practice has been to drill on pronunciation, to teach some very easy sentences like "J'ai un livre" or "Tengo un libro" at the very elementary stage and then to concentrate on translation and grammar during the remainder of the course. Certainly, much more can be done in the way of conversation without jeopardizing the reading objective.

This does not necessarily mean teaching how to go to the restaurant and to ask with the ease and fluency of a native for everything from lobsters to chicken à la king, or how to talk about a soccer game with all the technical knowledge of the expert. To spend all the time necessary for the acquisition of such a skill would be a waste of time and effort for the student and the teacher. The same can be said for any attempt to teach the type of colloquial terms that would be used by the hagglers in the market place. Yet, there are many words and idioms which are just as commonly used in everyday speech as in the written language. This is the common ground where the spoken and the written language meet. It consists of the terms and constructions most commonly used in a language. If conversation is confined to this sphere, it will have a double utility. First, it will result in an active knowledge of the basic terms and constructions. Secondly, by so doing, it will be of great assistance in the acquisition of reading skill.

The aural-oral approach, within these limits, has, especially in the early stages, another beneficial effect, namely: the enhancement of motivation. It means a great deal for the beginner to articulate an intelligible sentence, regardless of how short that sentence may be. He feels an immediate inner satisfaction, because he feels that he has achieved something concrete and practical. He has the feeling of new power, and this feeling encourages him to bend his efforts toward the achievement of greater power. To produce this state of mind in the learner is of great importance, for its presence will produce success, but its absence will result in failure.

This program for the college preparatory student refrains from specialization. It does not pretend to bring forth a finished product, but, like a survey course in literature, it tries to lay the broad foundations which will serve as the basis for further study and eventual specialization. Having had this broad foundation, the student can easily branch out in any direction which may be dictated by his needs and interests. The student's ability to do this should be the test of the adequacy of his preparation in secondary school.



## Let's Cooperate!

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(Author's summary.—Better results in foreign language teaching can be achieved through close cooperation of high schools and colleges, especially by coordination of their programs, more alert counseling, and constant improvement in the quality of instruction.)

NOW, when educational policies and programs are being submitted to inquisitorial scrutiny by ubiquitous post-war planning committees, when every subject in our high school and college curricula is being minutely examined, especially with an eye as to its "practical" value, is the time to review a phase of the teaching of modern languages that long has been a deterrent to the achievement of maximum results, namely, the lack of cooperation between language departments of high schools and colleges and of close coordination in their work. It is a common experience to hear college freshmen complain about the vast difference between high school French (or German or Spanish) and college French (or German or Spanish). The more rapid pace of college work, with the attendant evil (from the freshman's point of view) of longer hours and harder labor in individual homework, is the target of frequent, but superficial, criticism. More serious charges are those of the wide divergence in aims and methods and of the disparity in the quality of instruction on the two levels. We believe that this condition can be considerably ameliorated, if not completely eliminated, if the problem is approached with understanding, frankness, and sympathy by representatives of both the high school and the college. It is our purpose in this article to propose some practical means of improvement that have suggested themselves to one who is a college instructor. A similar paper on this topic, as viewed through the eyes of a high school teacher, would provide further stimulating suggestions to improve the *status quo*.

One fundamental cause for the prevailing state of affairs is the comparative isolation of the college instructor from the world and problems of the high school teacher. For this isolation, which brings in its train lack of coordination in programs, uneven quality of instruction, and other lesser evils, various reasons may be found. First, there is the inherent snobbishness of some college instructors who take the position that, after all, they are teaching on a higher level (infinitely superior to that of public school education) and cannot concern themselves with the headaches of teachers so unfortunate as to be working on an inferior plane. Second, by the very nature of a large part of their instruction (advanced and graduate courses) and at the insistence of well-meaning but ill-advised administrators that they make themselves, their department, and their school nationally prominent through publication of "scholarly" articles in professional

journals (promotion and salary preferment often depending upon research published rather than upon superior quality of classroom performance), college instructors tend to bury their noses in "research," too frequently only of the non-productive or self-glorifying sort. Third, college instructors, when thinking at all of the trials and tribulations of high school teachers, naturally revert to their own youthful experiences (often so many scholastic generations in the past that retrospection becomes embarrassing!) and fail to realize or comprehend the problems facing the contemporary high school teacher.

In the process of arranging the program for the 1944 session of the Pennsylvania State Modern Language Association the writer solicited from members throughout the commonwealth suggestions as to speakers. One Philadelphia high school teacher of proved competence and long experience replied plaintively: "I cannot suggest a single person in any neighboring institution who has any conception of the difficulty of language teaching in the high school of today and who would therefore speak in a constructive way." This serious indictment is, we believe, valid not only for the institutions mentioned, but is applicable to most colleges and universities. It is the writer's conviction that every college instructor should make a persistent, sympathetic attempt to understand the problems of present-day high school teachers, to appreciate the high school background of his academic charges, and to keep himself informed as to the prevailing philosophies, practices, and methods in secondary education. It has been said that, in her scheme of things, Nature abhors gaps. In education, too, an effort must be made to breach the hiatus that exists between high school and college instruction. Those who are on the college level, and especially those charged with training future high school teachers of modern languages, ought constantly to remind themselves that this year's college freshman is only last year's high school senior and that this year's college senior may be next year's high school teacher. In a system where continuity and coordination of programs are not only desirable but necessary to attain the maximum results, the academic isolationism of the college instructor must go the way of political and economic isolationism in the international world.

Probably the most important single remedy for the alleviation of the present ill is a meeting of high school and college instructors (perhaps with the presence and help, and certainly with the blessing and encouragement, of the state department of education) to plan a fully coordinated and successfully continuous program of instruction.<sup>1</sup> The first step in formulating this program would be the determination of minimum results to be attained by the end of one, two, three, or four years of high school study

<sup>1</sup> Cf. Dr. Helen Reese, "The Interrelationship of High School and College Teaching of French in Pennsylvania," *P.S.M.L.A. Bulletin*, May, 1945.

and, since a college semester's work is usually considered equal to a year's preparation in high school, the equating of these objectives with those to be reached after one, two, three, or four semesters of college study of a foreign language. While local circumstances may determine which aspect of instruction is to receive major emphasis, definite statewide minima of achievement should be established for grammar, for vocabulary, for reading, speaking, and writing skills. (Such problems as textbooks, methods, instructional devices, realia, and testing should also be the concern of the joint board.)

If at least the minimum goals agreed upon are reached in the high school and college courses, then a college instructor in German 3 can expect his students to possess a common fund of grammar and vocabulary, whether they come from a two-year high school preparation or from two semesters of study in college. The program of German 3 can be based on this common foundation and proceed to the attainment of objectives established for a course on that level. At the 1944 meeting of the P.S.M.L.A. referred to above, Professor Harry Reichard of Muhlenberg College protested against the separation of "academic" and "non-academic" pupils in high school language classes and pleaded for a common program of instruction with identical aims, objectives, and methods so that each pupil would know exactly how much of the foreign language he could hope to master in any given period of time. An inevitable corollary of this suggestion is the demand that every high school pupil be held to a strict accounting for mastering the minimum requirements, so that when he goes to college he will fit properly into the next advanced course and will profit by continuing work in the same language, but on a higher level.

Students should never be permitted to repeat in college any work already done in high school, as is now possible in some institutions. The use of placement tests for freshmen in such colleges encourages students deliberately to record wrong answers on the examination in the hope of being placed in an elementary course, regardless of the number of years spent in high school study of the language. This double use of the same language credits (for admission to college and for graduation from college) is a pernicious practice that ought to be eliminated by college administrators forthwith! If a common program has been set up by the high schools and colleges, a college freshman should automatically be placed in the next higher course called for by his preparation in secondary school.<sup>2</sup>

<sup>2</sup> If placement tests have become such a deeply entrenched measuring device in our educational scheme that college language departments feel they can not dispense with them, another approach may be suggested to the problem of bringing the poorly prepared freshman up to the level of college work. Such students could be placed in a no-credit, corrective, clinical course, emphasizing drill on grammatical forms, syntax, and vocabulary, until his weaknesses are corrected and he demonstrates ability to proceed with the course for which he was presumably prepared in high school. This system, which is effective for students in English composition

In the case of students who continue in college the study of the language begun in high school, college language departments have a golden opportunity to develop a fine spirit of cooperation with the high schools from which their students come. When the freshman does well in his college course, the department concerned should so inform the high school supervisor and teacher responsible and compliment them for the high quality of preparation afforded their pupils. Conversely, if the freshman fails or does poorly in college, his case should be studied carefully by the language department and if it appears obvious that faulty high school preparation is to blame for the failure, the college should report this to the supervisor, simultaneously suggesting ways to improve the quality of work done by that high school language department.

Another important factor in the coordination and continuity of programs is an effective, alert counseling system. It is the high school counselor's duty to determine as early as possible which pupils are likely to attend college and to inform himself as to the college entrance and graduation requirements for the various curricula. Then the pupils should be directed into the proper language course and not be allowed to substitute another because "It's easier" or "Father studied it" or "I want to be in the same classes as Bill." How many college majors in science, e.g., who studied Spanish in high school because of a current synthetic fad for everything Latin American or from a popular (but wholly erroneous) notion that Spanish is "easy," might have found it advantageous to get a high school foundation in the German required for the B.S. degree rather than wait to begin its study in college! The college scheduling officer likewise has an obligation to keep his advisees informed of the language needs of the various curricula and occupations and also to remind prospective graduate students of the reading requirements for advanced degrees. Where there is a complete freedom of choice in the election of language, the adviser should urge the student to continue the language studied in high school and point out the desirability of possessing a mastery of one language rather than a smattering of several.

The reputed inferiority of high school teaching to that in the college is, as a generalization, pure fiction. Criticism as to the lack of effective instruction may be directed with equal validity against both institutions. The slothful college freshman is prone to shift responsibility for poor preparation from himself and place the onus on his (all too often harassed, overworked) high school teacher with the remark, "Our high school course wasn't so hot."<sup>3</sup> We see no logical reason why the public schools should hold a

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and mathematics and which can be made to work for foreign languages, would have the advantage of encouraging the student to do his very best work on the placement test in order to avoid losing time and credit by being placed in "French O" for a semester or more.

<sup>3</sup> Even if this remark be true, the classroom teacher is often entirely blameless in this

monopoly on poor, ineffective instruction; on the contrary, we can cite from our own painful experience college instructors to prove the opposite! The truth is that neither secondary nor higher education has yet reached the millennium where all classroom instructors are of the most capable type. However, definite steps can and should be taken now to improve the quality of teachers on both levels, thus assuring more nearly uniform instruction in the two systems.

Proposals for improving the preparation of high school teachers of modern languages were drawn up by the P.S.M.L.A. and submitted to the post-war planning committee sponsored by the Pennsylvania Department of Public Instruction. This local program, which could be applied to conditions in other states as well, appeared in full in the December, 1944 issue of the P.S.M.L.A. *Bulletin* and included the following proposals:

1. That minimum requirements for certification be immediately increased from the present 18 semester hours of college study to 24.
2. That an examination—oral, aural, and written—be administered by a state board, only after the passing of which should the candidate be certified.
3. That only those trained specifically for foreign language teaching be assigned to the subject.
4. That adequate provision be made for subsidies and leaves to permit foreign language teachers periodically to refresh their knowledge and skills through study abroad or at domestic language institutes.

The improvement of the caliber of college instruction is a somewhat more ticklish proposition than in the case of the public school, which is immediately responsible and responsive to public opinion and subject to change by legislative action. However, it is our conviction that collegiate "deadwood" can be revived, inexperienced instructors encouraged, and properly trained new personnel secured by the adoption of such a program as the following:

1. Adequate preparation as indicated by an examination more thorough and searching than that proposed for the certification of high school teachers. (The right number of courses in the traditional subjects and/or the attaining of the Ph.D. degree will not necessarily guarantee a "ball of fire" in the classroom!) A fundamental course in educational psychology, principles, and methods should be a part of the equipment of a college instructor as well as thorough training in his subject field.
2. Proper incentive to, and recognition of, effective classroom teaching (entirely aside from research and publishing done) through promotion and salary increments.<sup>4</sup>
3. Adequate opportunities for additional study and in service training abroad or at home by means of subsidies and leaves.
4. Visitation and observation of successful colleagues, both in college and high school.<sup>5</sup>

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respect. Local educational philosophy, practices, and administration must share in the responsibility for graduates with deficient preparation.

<sup>4</sup> Cf. Professor Denham Sutcliffe, "Proud Specialists in Freedom," *A.A.U.P. Bulletin*, XXX, 2 (Summer, 1944).

<sup>5</sup> Cf. Dr. Helen Reese, *op. cit.* Also Dr. Anna E. Shumway, "Aids for Local Language Ills," *P.S.M.L.A. Bulletin*, May, 1945.

5. Appointment to college staffs of high school teachers of experience and outstanding ability.<sup>6</sup>

Undoubtedly there are many other appropriate suggestions that can be offered to effect a close coordination of high school and college teaching of modern languages. Nevertheless, the writer feels that if the program suggested here—the awakening of the college instructor to the problems of today's high school teacher and to the prevailing theories and practices in secondary education, the agreement by high schools and colleges on a common syllabus of objectives for the several levels of instruction, the reporting by the college to the high school of the success or failure of the latter's graduates in college courses, more alert counseling in both, and the constant improvement of the quality of teaching in the two systems—is carried out consistently and persistently, we shall have taken one long stride forward toward the union of the whole language fraternity in a common effort and shall be in a position to attain results in the teaching and learning of foreign languages not hitherto reached.

<sup>6</sup> Cf. Professor William L. Werner, "Postwar Liberal Education—A Demurrer," *A.A.U.P. Bulletin*, XXX, 2 (Summer, 1944).

"FOREIGN LANGUAGES, AMERICA'S NEED FOR THE FUTURE!"

"FOREIGN LANGUAGES FOR THE 'AIR AGE'!"

"AMERICANS, AWAKE TO LANGUAGE NEEDS!"



## *Comments on the Survey of Language Classes in the ASTP*

ABRAHAM HERMAN

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(*Author's summary.*—The pronounced excellence of the results is not based on satisfactory, objective proof, notably in the case of speaking. 2. The results obtained by the different categories of trainees are not clearly distinguished. 3. Anxious as we are to know what real beginners have accomplished, the category of trainees without any "previous recognizable experience in hearing or speaking" cannot serve as a criterion. 4. In reading, more is made of the role of transfer than of the fact that in a good many institutions there was considerable training in this aspect of language study. 5. There is nothing surprising in the fact that trainees who had previously studied the language achieved a rather good reading knowledge; we cannot, however, be sure that the true beginners learned to read "with considerable facility." 6. The superiority of intensive practice over distributed practice is not an established fact.)

TEACHERS of modern foreign languages now have before them what they should like to view as an authoritative report on the ASTP language curriculum.<sup>1</sup> Unfortunately, this study fails to satisfy the writer in some fundamental respects. The important changes in peace-time teaching advocated in the report are based on findings which do not seem to rest on adequate proof. But first, a word about the contents of the document.

The report sets forth the purpose of the survey, quotes an Army directive which describes the speaking objective, gives the details of the organizational machinery, delineates the oral techniques used in the participating schools, devotes several sections to the subject of grammar, reading and writing, presents in rather enthusiastic terms an appraisal of the results achieved and ends with a list of recommendations covering the features of the Army program, which the Survey Group would like to see adapted to the teaching of civilian classes. In lieu of a detailed examination of these changes, let us simply note that the report advocates the adoption of intensive courses in beginning language instruction. At the college level fifteen contact hours—not credit hours—weekly are recommended. Under this scheme, outside study would be eliminated to a large extent. The time thus saved would be spent in drill-work under the supervision of a native or bilingual speaker. The program of fifteen contact hours weekly is the ideal; the report recognizes that this degree of intensification is not possible in all colleges. "In making this recommendation," we read, "the Survey Group merely wishes to emphasize the fact that the Army Program achieved excellent results. To achieve comparable results a program similar to it in basic design would seem to be called for" (pp. 30-31).

<sup>1</sup> *A Survey of Language Classes in the Army Specialized Training Program* (the Report of a Special Committee for the Commission on Trends in Education of *The Modern Language Association*). New York: Modern Language Association of America (100 Washington Square East). Price, 25 cents.

Now the crux of the whole matter is to be found in this statement. In what way was this excellence measured, and, if measured successfully, at what specific level of instruction was it achieved? The findings are based on 427 class-visits made in a total of forty-four institutions. Normally this formidable number of class-visits would surely be more than enough to guarantee the seriousness with which the field representatives approached their task. It can also be granted at once that a more eminent and more competent group of men could not easily have been chosen for the survey. They were selected "on the basis of competence in several foreign languages, successful experience as teachers, good judgment and freedom from prejudice in favor of any particular method" (p. 7). In formulating its findings the Survey Group also relied on indirect evidence, "derived from the experience and impressions of a wide variety of local observers" (p. 8). Even so, however much confidence we may repose in this eminent group of men, however unbiased the local reports may have been, we still must know the criteria which guided the visitors in their characterization of the results as excellent.

There were approximately 15,000 trainees in fifty-five colleges and universities throughout the country. Standards of achievement of course varied greatly in so large a number of institutions. Except for two oral comprehension tests which were administered in all the participating schools, no objective, uniform device for testing pronunciation and intonation was developed. There was no standard measuring rod in such matters as use of idiom and sentence structure, range of vocabulary and of subject matter, accuracy and fluency. Convinced of the need for such objective testing, the agency in charge of the program in Washington was busily engaged in the study and possible preparation of such tests. It failed, however, to bring this task to a successful conclusion prior to the liquidation of the ASTP.

Any one who has taught civilian conversation courses is fully aware of the difficulties involved in assessing quite objectively the speaking power of the students. In giving them academic grades we, like the Survey Group, rely on our experience as teachers, on our judgment and on our notion as to what constitutes the norm in such courses. But this is precisely the point at which the subjective element enters. All of us know the teacher whose standard of excellence is so high that he never gives an A without some qualms of conscience. On the other hand, there is his colleague in whose eyes a B is almost an average grade, especially when the student is a "plugger." The Army program did not change human nature. Drill-masters teaching the same section often differed radically with regard to the attainments of their students. In a word, many unavoidable subjective elements figured in the picture all along the line.

But even more crucial to our discussion is the second part of my original

question. Granting for the sake of argument that the results were excellent, we must, nevertheless, know what category of trainees should be credited with this notable achievement. The entire interest in the Army language courses is based on the wide-spread belief that remarkable results were obtained by outright beginners. The report itself implies as much in its early pages. After itemizing the constituent elements of the "new approach," that is, the high concentration of the student's time, preoccupation with the spoken form of the language and contact with native speakers of the language, the authors of the report go on to say that "The unusual results obtained through this new approach to language learning led to considerable discussion. People asked 'Why isn't it possible to teach foreign languages in this way during normal times as well as in times of war?' " (p. 6).

The people who eagerly asked this question surely had in mind beginning students. In point of fact, were these "unusual results" achieved by trainees who had no previous knowledge of the language? A careful reading of the report fails to provide a satisfactory answer to this all-important question. We know, and the Survey Group knows that a great number of the trainees in the Western European languages had previously studied the language to which each was assigned to the extent, in some instances, of four college years. For example, at the University of Michigan we had no absolute beginners in French. Equating a high-school year with a college semester, the average for the whole group was 2.2 college years of previous study. In Spanish there were four beginners in a group of thirty-six. The number of non-beginners was large everywhere. Some institutions even ignored a specific Army recommendation which required trainees already proficient in one language to take up the study of another. Furthermore, in viewing the picture as a whole we cannot ignore the fact that among the beginners throughout the country there were not a few who had previously heard their parents speak the language at home.

The report, of course, does not overlook these facts entirely, although it speaks of "unusual results" at the very start where, as we have seen, this characterization is intended to apply to raw beginners. In the end, fully aware of the fact that it cannot legitimately base its conclusions on the work done by the trainees as a whole, the Survey Group sets up the following criterion: "For the purpose of this report the results of language teaching in the ASTP may be considered fairly only for those trainees *who had had no previous recognizable experience in hearing or speaking the foreign language which they were studying*" (p. 25).<sup>2</sup> For those who want to know what the complete novices have accomplished this is hardly a satisfactory yardstick since it in no way excludes trainees who had previously studied the language.

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First, a minor point. The members of the Survey Group themselves, visiting the classes in the second or third term, were not in a position to say that this category of trainees had no previous recognizable experience in hearing or speaking. This judgment was arrived at by the people in charge of the program locally. It was presumably based on a brief oral examination of the trainees prior to proper classification. A poor performance on this occasion did not necessarily mean an absence of previous experience in hearing or speaking. The rapid promotions to higher sections tends to corroborate this. However, for the sake of argument, let us assume the worst! Let us suppose that this group had previously been taught in accordance with the grammar-translation method and consequently had very little or no audio-oral training. But they did acquire some familiarity with the structure of the language and came away with a considerable passive vocabulary. Surely this start gave them a real advantage over the callow beginner. In converting their passive vocabulary into an active one and their knowledge of theoretical grammar into functional grammar, they did not have to expend as much effort as was required of those who had to come to grips for the first time with both aspects. It should also be observed in passing that they had a distinct advantage in the matter of reading.

Be this as it may, let us note that the results obtained by this group of trainees are no longer said to be "unusual" but rather "definitely good," "very satisfactory to the men in charge of the program," "encouraging and worthwhile." Furthermore, the results so described were achieved only in schools where the organizational set-up, the materials used and the teaching were of the best. We have, then, the anomalous situation of "unusual" results achieved by students who, we must suppose, were beginners, and only "encouraging and worthwhile" results in the case of those who had previously studied the language, even though passively.

The fact of the matter is that the report, in speaking of the results achieved, finds it rather difficult to distinguish between the several categories of trainees. Thus, having before us the group without any previous recognizable experience in hearing or speaking as the measuring rod, we come upon a statement, four pages farther on, which leaves us in the dark as to the category of trainees it has in mind. However, the implication is that we are dealing here with outright beginners:

There was complete agreement among all who participated in the Army language program—teachers and trainees alike—that the general success achieved was due first and foremost to its intensive character. A language course pursued through three twelve-week terms of fifteen contact hours per week under proper supervision did produce noteworthy results. These have been described in detail in the foregoing report, and only the following primary results need to be indicated:

1. The student after nine months had learned to understand the language as spoken by natives on a variety of subjects.
2. He was able to speak intelligibly on a wide range of subjects.



3. He was able to read the (European) language with considerable facility.
4. He was able to write the (European) language with reasonable skill (p. 29).

Now if these results have actually been achieved by beginners they are indeed "noteworthy." But until we have objective proof based on the work of a large number of students, we cannot be blamed for relying on personal experience. On this basis, I can say no more than that only our best students in French achieved more or less the results indicated above. And the group as a whole, it will be remembered, had 2.2 college years of previous study of the language. In so far as speaking was concerned, we were conscientiously able to say for the trainees in French very little more than that they were "competent" in accordance with the Army's definition of the term, that is, "able to comprehend two native speakers in conversation with each other and able to make [themselves] intelligible to a native when speaking on non-technical subjects." And we felt that this was no mean accomplishment.

Among the other points in the report that call for comment is the all-important matter of reading. Citing the opinion of ASTP language teachers to the effect that speaking helped reading, the report speaks of the "ease and speed" with which the trainees learned to read the foreign language. They apparently devoured works on the history, the geography, the economics and, in general, the culture of the countries they studied in the "area" branch of the course. These were not edited texts for English-speaking students, but the original versions. "The ability of the trainees to read such material," we are told, "shows clearly a transfer from the ability to understand and speak to the ability to read" (p. 18).

But, as matter of fact, is this transfer clearly shown? No one will deny that speaking and other types of oral work greatly facilitate the reading process. However, was the amount of transfer sufficient to result in accurate and really meaningful reading? The cultural material, written as it was for adult nationals of the respective countries offered, we may be sure, many real difficulties. The trainee encountered in these books a vocabulary which was fully three times the extent of the relatively limited, every-day stock of words he used in conversation. In reading, he frequently came upon a figurative and abstract use of words. He had to grapple with new verb forms, with such tenses in French, for example, as the past definite, the past anterior and with the imperfect and pluperfect of the subjunctive mode. Numerous idioms, many syntactical difficulties blocked his progress. The sentences were frequently long and involved.

And yet, many trainees did learn to read. They did so because of transfer in some measure, but largely because they had *actual training in reading*, and because those who were not beginners had a fair passive knowledge of the language at the start. A statement in the report corroborates this fact:

While the main purpose of the ASTP was to teach trainees to speak and to understand the foreign languages they studied, they learned to read as well. This is attested by the large number of books *widely used in class*, the outside work reported on in class, and many papers, reviews and other material produced by the trainees. *To a very considerable degree the classes in grammar were lessons in reading* (p. 17).<sup>3</sup>

Even a casual examination of this statement makes it clear that the large number of books widely used in class and the grammar lessons which were turned into reading lessons constituted actual training in reading. This is further corroborated by a later statement to the effect that "translation was freely used in most classes when the limitations of time and need for clarity seemed to demand it" (p. 18). In the Army program the primary objective was speaking. Obviously those teachers who felt that the trainee should also learn to read were fully convinced that his speaking knowledge, such as it was, would not give him a good reading knowledge. It should also be observed that the creditable results achieved in reading did not constitute something over and above the results obtained in speaking. A price had to be paid. The large number of books read in class perhaps provided some few topics for conversation. The bulk of it surely did not. Any wide-awake teacher is keenly aware of the inherent difficulties involved and of the uniformly wretched results obtained when so-called conversation is based on texts other than those expressly designed for the purpose. To a considerable extent, then, class reading, contrary to an Army recommendation, was practiced for its own sake, which means at the expense of direct practice in the oral use of language.

One more point on the question of reading. In this connection the report does speak of those "who began the language in ASTP." It must be assumed that the beginners spoken of here are not the same as those who had no previous recognizable experience in hearing or speaking. Supposedly, we are dealing here with complete novices. It seems, however, that these neophytes did not allow themselves to be greatly outdistanced by those with previous training. While some in the latter group were proficient enough to read one to two books per week, the beginners also "voluntarily read many books in the foreign language, selected from lists prepared by the teaching staff, though the amount of such reading varied" (p. 17).

How good was this reading? How much of it was clearly and perfectly understood? What proportion of the country-wide total of this group actually did all this reading? We have no answers to these important questions. The report stresses the great amount read and the implication is that the reading was good. Presumably, the very best among the beginners, who were actually taught how to read, did show creditable results by the end of the course. As for the results achieved by the others in this group, we can only guess. It is unlikely that the Survey Group had the

<sup>3</sup> The italics are mine.

opportunity to observe directly, even to a fair extent, this phase of the work. On this point, they derived their information from the local directors and instructors. Without in any way impugning the veracity of the local reports, we know that in the eyes of some teachers a reading knowledge of a foreign language means nothing short of the ability to understand 100 per cent. On the other hand, many are satisfied when the student is said to be getting "the general drift." In brief, lacking substantial and objective proof all that we can do is to fall back upon our own experience. On this basis I can unhesitatingly say that even trainees with previous study of the language did not read with real ease, say, an editorial in such newspapers as "France-Amérique" or "Pour la Victoire."

Among the questions which the report raises in the reader's mind not the least important is the matter of the "intensive" course. The recommendations of the Survey Group are based on the postulate that the general success achieved in the Army language program "was due first and foremost to its intensive character." If the results achieved by the trainees had been more accurately measured, and if, above all, we knew definitely what the real beginners accomplished, we should perhaps be in a better position to judge. However, really valid proof could be had only if control groups, initially of more or less equal linguistic aptitude, were set up. Everything—the quality of the teaching, the method and the materials used, the total amount of time devoted to the course would have to be the same, with the sole exception that the learning process would be highly concentrated in the case of half of the groups and distributed over a greater span of time in that of the other.

Lacking such proof, we cannot say that the advantages of "massed" learning over the distributed variety have been clearly established. Without being professional psychologists, we instinctively feel that if too much of the same kind of practice is crowded into too narrow a span of time the law of diminishing returns sets in. The later increments of gain are much smaller than the earlier ones, and a point is reached where the capacity to add to what is already known becomes quite negligible. That this was frequently the case in the Army language courses will not be denied by many instructors and drill-masters.

The problem has been widely studied by psychologists. The matter, however, is far too complex to be entered into here. The type and amount of the material to be learned, the number and kind of successive repetitions between rest periods, the length of the rest periods and a host of other considerations figure in the picture. Nevertheless, the rather general conclusion is in favor of distributed learning. The mind when at rest or when preoccupied with other matters is still at work on the material which was previously practiced deliberately. In popular speech we say that the material has to have time to "soak in." The psychologists use the word

"set." William James expressed the idea by saying that we learn to swim in winter and to skate in summer. It may well be, however, that the relatively long intervals we regularly have between lessons and the long summer vacations involve too great an amount of forgetting. Nevertheless, until we have a sufficient body of experimental evidence touching on this aspect of our subject we shall have to suspend judgment.

By way of conclusion, it need hardly be added that the questions raised in the foregoing discussion were prompted solely by the concern which we all feel for the standards of our profession. Much good has come out of the Army language program. While there was essentially nothing new in the "new approach" practiced in these courses, it did wake up many teachers to the need for greater exertion on their part in teaching the aural-oral aspects of language. The moribund grammar-translation method has perhaps finally received its *coup de grâce*. Everywhere teachers are seeking information about the work done in the Army courses. The need for good teacher-training is felt more keenly than ever. In our quest for something better than the results achieved heretofore, we are certain that more emphasis must be placed on the teaching of "language for use." The authors of the report are sure that the best results will be achieved if we follow the path traced by them. Speaking for myself, I should not like to venture far on this road until a more solid foundation has been laid.

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## *Reply to Prof. Herman's Article on the ASTP*

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ELSEWHERE in the present issue of the *Modern Language Journal* there appears an article entitled "Comments on the Survey of Language Classes in the ASTP," by Professor Abraham Herman of the University of Michigan. As a member of the group which undertook the Survey for the Commission on Trends in Education of the Modern Language Association, I welcome this opportunity to offer a brief reply to some of Mr. Herman's observations. May I say that I come to this endeavor in no defensive or doctrinaire spirit, for it is clear that Mr. Herman's comments are not intended to be controversial, but rather skeptical, in nature. Mr. Herman is evidently altogether open-minded regarding the basic problems of language-instruction recently brought into focus by some rather sharp differences between so-called "traditional" methods and the so-called "new" Army methods. He clearly implies that he would favor any method which would yield demonstrably improved results and thus serve to advance the cause of language-learning. His skepticism stems rather from the conviction that the Survey Group failed to demonstrate the excellence of ASTP results reliably enough to warrant any substantial adaptation of the intensive, oral-aural approach to civilian language-classes. It is my purpose, therefore, to offer an opinion on the extent to which this skepticism is justified and in so doing to attempt to clarify one or two points which Mr. Herman raises in his interpretation of the Survey Group's conclusions.

Mr. Herman is skeptical mainly because our claim of excellent results achieved in the ASTP is not based on precisely formulated criteria or on satisfactory proof. First, he implies the inability of any group of individuals to agree on what constitute absolute standards of excellence, particularly in speaking; second, he feels that this particular group, as far as he is able to interpret its conclusions, further invalidates its estimate by failing to differentiate sufficiently or consistently the main categories of trainees, among whom results might be expected to be relative.

Regarding the first of these points, let me quote from the *Survey* (pp. 8-9) that "the members of the group were together for two days before starting out on their assignments, and after full discussion, drew up for their own guidance an organized chart or questionnaire covering the points about which they were expected to inform themselves." And let me add that at the conclusion of the visits, we conferred together for two more days before committing our findings to paper. It seems to me that this amount of deliberation could be assumed to have eliminated, within our group as a

whole, any serious danger of unreliability resulting from varying individual judgments of excellence.

The second of Mr. Herman's points has to do with his interpretation of the phrase "trainees who had had no previous recognizable experience in hearing or speaking the foreign language which they were studying" (*Survey* p. 25), used by us to embrace all those trainees, and only those, whose achievements we presumed to appraise at all. Mr. Herman asks whether the "unusual" results alleged by us were achieved by trainees who had no previous knowledge of the language, and states that a careful reading of the report fails to answer this question. Our frame of reference, formulated in terms of "previous recognizable experience in hearing or speaking," is in Mr. Herman's opinion unsatisfactory since, he says, it in no way excludes trainees who had previously studied the language. In that case our frame of reference seems to require elucidation, for it was certainly meant to exclude those trainees whose previous study, or contact, or family background, had been at all productive of oral-aural skills having any substantial range; it was meant to include, on the other hand, those trainees whose previous study of, or contact with, the language had resulted in no demonstrable ability to speak or understand it, apart of course from one or two basic phrases such as "How are you?", "Good-bye," and the like, which even a trainee in Chinese might have picked up at some moment from his laundry-man. In other words it is impossible to find many completely raw beginners; what actually exists is a continuum, from complete beginners to already competent speakers, which must necessarily be broken at some arbitrary point. In making the break, we felt justified in bunching with the few raw beginners a substantial number of "practical" beginners. And while Mr. Herman asserts that we were not in a position to judge a given trainee's previous experience, we felt safer than he seemingly would have in relying upon local directors' classifications. Furthermore, when we heard American boys talking fluent Chinese, Japanese, or Malay, we could be sure that we were confronted with a homogeneous group.

Although Mr. Herman has the mistaken impression that our phrase having to do with "no previous recognizable experience" includes advanced students, he elsewhere believes he finds us making a cleavage which taxes us with serious inconsistency. He says: "We have, then, the anomalous situation of 'unusual results' achieved by students who, we must suppose, were beginners, and only 'encouraging and worthwhile' results in the case of those who had previously studied the language. . . ." It is difficult to see how Mr. Herman can impute to us such a distinction, for when we call the results "definitely good, very satisfactory . . . very generally gratifying . . . encouraging and worthwhile" (*Survey* p. 25) it seems altogether clear, through the words "on this basis," that we are talking about the very same category of trainees whose achievements we elsewhere call (in summary)



"unusual"—namely the category "who had had no previous recognizable experience . . ."—in fact the only category about which we presumed to pronounce ourselves at all, since we were thoroughly aware that trainees with previous productive study had a real advantage over beginners and therefore constituted a variable far too great for us to control. If, then, Mr. Herman infers that we are in effect damning with faint praise that portion of trainees who brought to their ASTP course some oral-aural skill from previous study or contact, he is basing his inference on a distinction which, as I have tried to show, we do not make.

Beyond the above points which perhaps deserved some clarification, most readers of Mr. Herman's comments, including the members of the Survey Group, will find his underlying skepticism quite justified. All will concede that the Survey Report is not an objective evaluation of ASTP methods and achievements. By its nature it could not be that, nor does it pretend to be. Much less does it pretend to be the last word, according to which with blind confidence language-teachers everywhere would have only to utter the magic formula in order to begin turning out accomplished linguists from our schools and colleges. The most that the Survey Report hoped to do was to describe and appraise what had been accomplished in the ASTP, to stimulate interest in possibilities of carrying over certain of its elements into civilian language-instruction, to guide in the direction of experimentation the many language-teachers who had no first-hand ASTP experience whatever. If there were to be further experimentation, there could be further pooling of experience, and there could be further study. As it happens, considerable further experimentation is actually taking place, and further study is being undertaken—serious, objective, statistical study. For information concerning the nature and extent of this study, I refer Mr. Herman and all readers of his and my present remarks to the article by Professor H. B. Dunkel appearing in a previous issue of the *Modern Language Journal*, entitled "The Investigation of the Teaching of a Second Language."

The Language Investigation which Mr. Dunkel describes will endeavor to furnish definite, objective evidence on some of the basic problems on which the Survey Report could throw no satisfactory light. Meanwhile, however, despite the admitted shortcomings of the Survey, I permit myself to ask: Would there be many teachers who would assert that since the Survey could not have been expected to provide objective evidence, it might as well not have been undertaken? If there were, I should feel deeply impelled to register a loud plea for the retention, in academic endeavors, of some respect for, and faith in, subjective human judgment.

## *The G. I. Looks at the ASTP*

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(Summary.—Soldier-students of Swedish, Norwegian and German express their opinions of the ASTP by means of a questionnaire. Their reactions are, on the whole, favorable, but pertinent criticisms and suggestions are offered as well.)

WHAT did the G. I. himself think of the Army Specialized Training (AST) language program? Much has been written from the professorial point of view. It is perhaps not amiss, therefore, to reverse the roles and let the G. I. have a word.

In order to provide an opportunity for the soldier-students to express themselves, a questionnaire was prepared and administered to 81 trainees stationed at the University of Minnesota for the study of Swedish, Norwegian and German.<sup>1</sup> Their opinions should be worthy of consideration in any evaluation of ASTP methodology. Their qualifications to make suggestions and criticisms should not summarily be dismissed for they were mature students, many of them being successful business men, lawyers, teachers and other professional men, and each student, before entering the ASTP, had studied at least one other foreign language.

This summary of the report<sup>2</sup> on the questionnaire will, it is hoped, call attention to many advantages, and weaknesses as well, of the "intensive method" and thus in some small way further the cause of improved language teaching. The trainees' criticisms and suggestions frequently contain implications to which the language teacher might well pay heed.

First, here are a few facts about the students which may account for some of their answers: average number of weeks of study in the ASTP—24; average Army General Classification Test score—138; average age—26; average number of years in college—3.6; number with college degrees—62%. Given a choice, 74 students would choose the AST method, 3 the grammar-reading method, 4 a combination of the two. In answer to the question: "How does your present knowledge of the language studied in the ASTP compare with your knowledge of the language learned by the grammar-reading method when you had *just completed* the last course in it?" 58 thought they had acquired greater speaking skill, 26 greater reading skill and 31 greater writing skill in the AST language. This despite the fact that, in many cases, the former language was the language of their parents.

It should be noted that the total number of weekly hours is highly

<sup>1</sup> The Questionnaire was given to 26 trainees in Swedish, 24 in Norwegian and 31 in German, in September, 1944. A total of 81 is wholly inadequate for drawing any conclusions, but attention is called to many phases of the method which warrant further investigation.

<sup>2</sup> The complete report, *Student's Language Questionnaire*, is on file in the Northwestern University library, Evanston, Illinois.

significant. The AST student had 15 hours per week—three times as many as the college student attending classes five hours a week, and five times as many as the college student attending only three hours per week. Only two ten-day furlough periods interrupted the consecutive study of the AST student. The college student has considerably less continuity in his course, because of many vacations, examination weeks and the like. Also, AST drill sections were limited to ten students, whereas the trainees' civilian language classes averaged twenty-seven students.

The reactions of the three groups can be arranged under a dozen headings which reflect their general attitudes. This list contains favorable responses in order of frequency. These are stated as nearly as possible in the words of the students themselves:

1. Really learn to use the language and learn it faster and more easily.
2. A method that sustains interest and seems natural.
3. Stress on conversation with constant use of the language in the classroom.
4. Basic grammar is mastered although rules of grammar are not stressed.
5. Native teachers who really know the language and are interested in teaching it.
6. A large amount of individual attention made possible by small classes.
7. The language becomes "a part of you"; you get the "feel" of it.
8. The seeming ease of achieving intonation and accent.
9. Contact with natives outside the classroom.
10. Lesson material taken from life-like situations.
11. Living with classmates who are linguistically inclined.
12. Reproduction of the atmosphere of the country whose language is studied.

Although most of the students praised the new approach, some of them offered criticisms of details. All were extremely conscientious in their effort to record their true reactions and they wrote very extensive answers in the questionnaire. "I doubt the wisdom of spending so much time on the study of a language unless it is a college major, or one is going to make practical use of it. In fact, it may not be possible for the average non-major college student to devote such a large portion of his time to a foreign language." "I think the speed with which one learns a language depends largely upon the spontaneous interest in it, and the practical, foreseeable objectives, regardless of method."

The question of retention is considered by another student. "I believe the ASTP method valuable if one is going to *continue* hearing and seeing the language constantly (as by living in the country). Otherwise I believe the grammar method will be retained longer. I had the experience of studying French quite a long time ago by the grammar method, and Spanish much later which was learnt by living in Spain, and almost entirely without grammar. Now my Spanish has faded, but I can revert to French with a little more facility." It should be noted that this student would choose the grammar-reading method because, as he says, he has "a visual rather than an aural memory."

Enthusiastic comment is made by one of the lawyers in the group: "ASTP procedure is definitely far superior to any other extant method and with the ironing out of the few difficulties will constitute a great stride forward in the language learning program. Had I not known Spanish *before* I went to school I doubt greatly that I would have known much Spanish at the end of my High School and University training." He states, further, that he likes the minimizing of grammar and rules but feels that at least one grammar hour per week is of great value. He likes the "great amount of conversation" and "constant tests." He feels, however, that "class reading in unison fails to uncover individual faults in accent and pronunciation." [This indicates that he misunderstands its use. Unison work is done upon the introduction of new material so that all may gain confidence and make a good *beginning* in accent and pronunciation. The individual work follows immediately thereafter.] He continues: "Instructors should be more willing to answer the few grammar questions that *do* arise." [This refers to the drill session and is a problem of teacher technique.] Another student expresses himself this way: "I believe that the ASTP method is much superior. Work is given out too slowly and in too small a quantity in most regular college language courses, and not enough time is spent in speaking. I believe that speaking a language is the most important reason for learning it. Reading and writing ability will come very easily if a student first learns to use the language orally."

No one was opposed to the use of the ASTP method for the purpose of learning to *speak* the language. One student said that "for reading scientific publications I believe the grammar-reading method is better because you understand sentence construction, verb conjugations, etc., and then with a dictionary reading comes fairly easy." Another states: "Since my primary motive wouldn't be to learn how to speak the language colloquially but to be able to read and write impersonally in the language, I would prefer the old method."

A combination of the two methods was suggested by one student "for people who have a deep-seated interest in the language." Another seemed to imply that more time should be devoted to "grammar" and "reading" with "ASTP method getting the major portion of time." One student said he "can't judge" although he "had studied German four years in the conventional grammar-reading method."

The students agreed generally that they obtained a larger vocabulary in a shorter period of time, chiefly because all material was presented in the form of complete sentences. This vocabulary was also more practical and was immediately useful in every-day activities.

An objection to the grammar-reading method was its failure to teach one to speak. Conversely, another student said the ASTP method teaches the student to speak the language fluently. Not only does he learn the

spoken language, but he learns to read and write it also. In this process of learning, he develops a feeling for the language.

Various students were concerned about the time factor. One felt that the course should be longer. Another maintained that there should be more home study and less time in drill sessions. A third contended that there was too much home study.

Rote learning and interest were associated by four students. That all in the class were interested in the methods used is evidenced by their very complete answers. Regardless of this, their interest was certain to lag at times. One said that memorizing became "trying at times" and another that rote learning resulted in monotony. A third was concerned with the matter of constant repetition of phrases and its effect upon a student when he tries to create phrases of his own. A fourth, in the same trend of thought, wondered what he would do when trying to speak of subjects not included in the memorized phrases.

That constant memorizing may have an unfortunate psychological effect, is suggested by one student, while another just does not *like* to memorize sentences. Three students warn that care must be taken against losing the cultural aspect of language-learning. Finally, one student suggests that, later in the course, the cultural, geographic, political and historical aspects of the area, which are now given in English, should be in the language of that area.

There were numerous observations relating to testing. Several students felt that testing was overemphasized; that oral rather than written tests should be stressed. One said, "There is the danger that drill sessions may degenerate into places to prepare for examinations."

Some of the students mentioned that new material was presented before they had drilled sufficiently on that already received. There was "too much stress on variety of vocabulary without time to consolidate the knowledge already gained."

Several students were concerned with the teaching aspect of the method. They agreed that the drill master should be an experienced teacher. One of them stated it in this way: "The drill masters must be entirely clear as to their job so that there is not too much wandering off the subject."

As aids in the study of the language, about two dozen different devices and variations in procedure were used at appropriate times. These were listed on the questionnaire. The trainees ranked them as being of great value, some value, or little or no value in learning the language. The six devices and procedures which came first in preference are 1) close, informal instructor-student relationship, 2) frequent oral testing, 3) regular weekly written tests, 4) use of the Mirrophone, 5) class visitors (natives), 6) assigned and extempore speeches. In addition, dictation, phonograph records, singing, films, outside contacts with native people, foreign language news-

papers, and supplementary reading appeared high in the list.

The fact that all of the students in the three groups, Swedish, Norwegian and German, made detailed answers to the questionnaire exemplifies the interest they displayed in the course. The element of interest was often expressly stated as an important incentive in the learning of the language. Interest was created by stress on the actual use of the language, concomitant study in the "area studies," constant student participation and student awareness of progress toward fluency.

The above opinions, whether quoted or summarized, are representative judgments by serious and mature men who were in a position to compare the old methods with the new. As such, they deserve consideration. It is true that they are only the voice of the "customers," and therefore somewhat prejudiced. However, we purveyors are not immune to prejudice. We cannot assume that "the customer is always right," but at least we should give him a fair hearing.

**"AMERICANS, AWAKE TO LANGUAGE NEEDS!"**

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## *A New College Language Course for Beginners*

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(*Author's summary.*—The speed at which a student acquires an active knowledge of a foreign language is determined largely by the number of weekly contact hours. Accordingly, the usual two-year course could be condensed into an effective one-year course at a great saving of total student learning hours, without increasing instructional costs excessively. This plan would make it possible for two-year language students to take relatively advanced work in the second year. Majors would gain an extra college year for advanced studies in their field.)

THE Army Specialized Training Program has stimulated a great deal of thought on the possibility of incorporating in liberal arts courses the best features of the intensified approach to language study. As a matter of fact, here and there a little of this pioneering is already in progress. No doubt, if given a free rein, many a former A. S. T. P. teacher would be glad to organize his ideal beginners' course. This article is an attempt on the part of one such teacher to present his definition of a desirable beginners' course.

The reading objective, which was indirectly forced upon language teachers by their eloquent opponents, is now being superseded by the much broader aural-oral objective. While exclusive concentration on the skill of reading, or even of writing, often eliminates the possibility of acquiring conversational skill, the reverse is not true. Concentration on speaking and understanding, if properly handled, automatically produces a certain reading and writing ability.<sup>1</sup> The aural-oral objective *is*, accordingly, the fourfold objective of an ability to speak, to understand, to read, and to write. Scientists and various other groups may still insist on nothing more than a reading knowledge. For the time being, at least, the opportunity to acquire only a reading knowledge had better be optional wherever possible. However, where only one type of beginners' course can be offered, the conversational objective ought to replace the reading objective. The new course would still meet the needs of the scientist without encroaching upon his time, as will later be shown. At the same time, this objective would also offer something worthwhile to those interested in the living language.

Suggestions on innovation must, of course, be as modest as possible. Only the most optimistic foreign language instructor will hope for a beginner's course with as many as the seventeen contact hours per week of the Army program. But—and this has been suggested elsewhere<sup>2</sup>—our science

<sup>1</sup> This obviously does not apply to character languages such as Chinese and Japanese.

<sup>2</sup> Adolf D. Klarmann, "The Challenge of the Army," *German Quarterly*, XVII (March, 1944), p. 70.

courses offer the precedent for what is needed: the substitution of laboratory work for outside study time, thus increasing the number of contact hours at the expense of study hours.

Army language courses have clearly demonstrated that the constant, intensive guidance of the instructor is the key to better language teaching in our schools. The seventeen weekly contact hours of the Army program were theoretically supplemented by fifteen to twenty outside study hours, but, in actual practice, few of the men devoted that much time to language preparations. They were so exhausted from their weekly seventeen hours of language classes, ten hours of area classes, eleven hours of military and physical training, and three hours of other compulsory assemblies, etc., that they were often unable to study. Furthermore, the men found that they had to devote several outside study hours per week to area, even though they were at first told that this part of the program was not supposed to require any outside study time whatsoever. Beginning with the sixth month, however, they were asked to devote forty per cent of all study hours to area. On top of all this, study conditions were, in many instances, extremely unfavorable. A thorough inquiry by the author revealed that, on the average, the men devoted only about nine hours per week to the preparation of their language assignments, an approximate ratio of contact to study hours of 2:1. Nevertheless, excellent results were obtained.<sup>3</sup>

Experience with the German section of the Army program at the University of Missouri has convinced the author that, other things being equal, the speed at which a student acquires an active knowledge of a foreign language is determined largely by the number of weekly contact hours, and a very effective ratio of contact to study hours is 2:1, as opposed to the conventional college ratio of 1:2. In other words, the student who devotes fifteen learning hours per week to a foreign language will progress at a certain speed if he sees his instructor during five of these hours and studies individually during the other ten, whereas he will progress roughly twice as rapidly if he can see the instructor during ten of these hours and study individually during the other five. If the student spends all fifteen learning hours with the instructor, he will progress even more rapidly, but, from this point of view of efficiency, not enough more to warrant the expense of instructor hours, for there are certain learning exercises, such as the memorization of vocabulary and idioms, or the preparation of an oral essay, which might just as well be done by the student on his own initiative.

On the basis of the above hypothesis it should be feasible to condense the usual two-year language course into an intensified one-year course by doubling the number of weekly contact hours, by reducing to one-half the expected number of weekly study hours, and by strictly limiting the size of the classes. The total of twenty semester contact hours of a regular five-

<sup>3</sup> These facts apply specifically only to the first German unit to arrive at the University of Missouri.

hour course running for four semesters<sup>4</sup> would thus be crowded into one year, and the forty semester study hours of the former course would be reduced to ten. Three-fourths of outside study time would thus be eliminated. There are several factors which make this desirable: 1) The old two-year course allows entirely too much time for forgetting over the many vacation periods. 2) The extensive course provides too little time for drill, especially during the first year when it is most needed; with the opportunity to practice immediately what he has learned, the student requires much less outside study time to fix the new material in his mind. 3) It is relatively easy to get the average beginner in a language to spend one productive hour in preparation, but it is pure optimism to expect him to show much benefit from the theoretical second study hour. 4) The small classes tremendously increase both the amount of time devoted directly to each student and the possibility of effective control of the entire group.

While some may doubt that the usual two-year course can be compressed into half the number of total hours, many of those who taught in the Army program will lend this assumption whole-hearted support, and would probably welcome an opportunity to prove its validity in a beginners' course similar to the one described as follows:

A one-year course in beginning language: five credit hours per semester. First semester: five hours per week of lectures, discussion, and recitation on the structure of the language; an additional five hours reserved for aural-oral practice of the language—the laboratory or drill hours; formal assignments requiring an average of only one hour of study for each of the five days; complete coordination of the work in structure and the conversational drill. Second semester: no formal lectures on structure, but rather a shift to two hours of conversational drill per day, five days a week; assignments requiring an average of only one hour of study per day; a limited amount of reading as a basis for conversation; class discussions on all conceivable situations of everyday life; systematic idiom and syntax drill; an occasional exercise in composition to insure accuracy of speech; major emphasis on *student* participation in the oral use of the language.

In the first semester it would be entirely possible to meet as many as sixty students for the hour on structure, as was done in the Army courses. However, there should never be more than twelve students in each drill section. In the second semester, neither of the two daily meetings should include more than a dozen students. Any increase beyond this number would seriously impair the efficiency of the whole organization, while a decrease to a number as low as eight would be of tremendous advantage. Sectioning of students according to ability would add significantly to teaching efficiency.

An illustration may be used to show how the number of instructor hours

<sup>4</sup> For the sake of comparison, it will be assumed throughout that the regular two-year course yields five credit hours in each semester.

required for the conventional five-hour course compares with the number required for the suggested intensified course. If sixty students, for example, come to the language department for the traditional two-year course, they will probably be sectioned into three groups of twenty each. This will require fifteen instructor hours per semester, thirty per year, or sixty for the two-year course. Now let us suppose that sixty students register in the proposed intensified course. The first semester will require five instructor hours for the class in structure, and, with five drill sections of twelve students each, twenty-five additional instructor hours, comprising a total of thirty. Since the progress made in the first semester of the intensified course is roughly equal to that of the usual one-year course, we find that thirty instructor hours are required to cover the same material under either system. In the second semester of the intensified course, however, the large class in structure being eliminated, there are five drill sections meeting for two hours daily, five times per week, totaling fifty instructor hours. The fifty instructor hours required for the second semester of the intensified course represent an increase of 66.7 per cent over the thirty instructor hours required for its equivalent, namely, the second year of the usual course. But, if calculated on the basis of the entire course in both cases, the amount of increase drops to 33.3 per cent, since the first semester of the new course involves no more instructor hours than the equivalent first year of the conventional course.

If one may be permitted to take the welfare of the student into consideration, a factor which our college efficiency experts only too often neglect, it is at once clear that the change results in a tremendous saving of student time. The sixty students, by expending only thirty semester learning hours, will presumably make the same amount of progress they otherwise would make by expending sixty semester learning hours. Thus, on the basis of a college year of thirty-six weeks' duration, the new one-year course for each unit of sixty students requires  $40$  (average weekly instructor hours)  $\times 36$  (weeks), or 1440 actual teaching hours and, for the students,  $15$  (weekly learning hours)  $\times 36$  (weeks)  $\times 60$  (students), or 32,400 actual learning hours. To achieve the same goal, the usual two-year course requires only  $15$  (weekly instructor hours)  $\times 72$  (weeks), or 1080 actual teaching hours, but, for the students,  $15$  (weekly learning hours)  $\times 72$  (weeks)  $\times 60$  (students), or 64,800 actual learning hours. To sum it up, the new course saves fifty per cent of *each* student's time, as compared with an increase of only 33.3 per cent of *total* instructor time for each unit of sixty students. In other words, the addition of one teacher to the staff could save a year's work for sixty students, or the astounding total of 32,400 actual learning hours.

The teachers to be employed in the beginners' course proposed here must possess several important qualifications that are often lacking in language teachers. That they must be good teachers goes without saying.

They must also be reasonably fluent both in English and in the language to be taught. This is, of course, a departure from Army policy, for, according to Army directives, the drill-masters of the A. S. T. P. were to have been native informants whose only qualification was a good knowledge of the colloquial speech of their native land, and who had not necessarily had any higher education, not to speak of teaching experience. Apparently few supervisors of Army language units followed Army policy in this regard. The hundreds of questions on why certain grammatical forms are required must be dealt with efficiently. If English is used in the drill sections for grammatical explanations, extreme brevity and clarity should characterize every remark. With the increase in aural comprehension, this semidirect method should gradually develop into the direct method. It might even be advisable to effect such a gradual shift of approach in the large section on structure.

The teachers must also possess an unusual amount of patience, for the entire purpose of the course is defeated unless the student is given frequent and uninterrupted opportunity to express himself at some length in spite of any errors he may make in doing so. Corrections and comments should be reserved for a time when they will not interrupt the student's train of thought.

The teachers must be willing to cooperate with one another to the fullest extent. Frequent conferences of the entire participating staff are of utmost importance. This applies especially to the first year in which the course is attempted. The course director should be in charge of a drill section as well as the large class on structure, for he may otherwise fail to appreciate the problems involved in coordinating the work of the two daily classes.

No attempt will be made to discuss in detail the material to be employed and the possible methods of its presentation. It is very likely that many texts and other teaching materials adaptable to the course here outlined will soon be published. The resourcefulness of the individual instructor, however, is always more important than any text. Some of the best teaching materials are not to be found in any textbook. Foreign language newspapers, pictorial ads from our magazines,<sup>5</sup> cartoons and comic strips, foreign and American films, the personal lives of the students, imaginary problems and situations briefly outlined by the instructor, and many other items offer ideal stimuli for impromptu or prepared foreign language conversation, story-telling, and speech-making.<sup>6</sup>

Only a limited amount of reading should be indulged in, and the material read must be vital and stimulating to almost any student. Under no

<sup>5</sup> See: George A. C. Scherer, "Pictorial Advertisements as a Form of Realia," *German Quarterly*, XVIII (March, 1945), pp. 55-57.

<sup>6</sup> For more suggestions, cf. B. Q. Morgan, "A Memorandum on the 'Intensive' Course in a Foreign Language," *German Quarterly*, XVI (November, 1943), pp. 200-201.



circumstances should the reading material be chosen purely for its cultural value. Certain readers on the beauty of foreign cities and landscapes, for example, can destroy every vestige of the beginner's enthusiasm. Let us spare him the superlatives of these eulogies. If we do, he is more likely to return for a second year of the language.

If the student has only two years to devote to foreign language study, he can at least reach the stage of passable self-expression in the language of his choice. After the new one-year beginners' course he is well prepared to take any of the courses that usually follow the second year, courses previously denied him for lack of time. All courses available to him after the first year can, and should, be conducted essentially in the foreign language, in order to enable him to retain, and to add to, what he has learned in the first year. If he desires only more skill in speaking, and perhaps in writing, he can take a course that continues the work of the second semester of the first year. Once the beginners' course has proved itself, the subsequent course in conversation, and perhaps composition, could also be reorganized on the principle that contact hours are much more valuable than individual study hours. For example, a three-hour conversation course, requiring six hours of preparation per week, could be reorganized to meet five days a week and to require only four hours of outside study. Such a plan conforms to the principle that nine semester learning hours should yield three semester credit hours.

After having had the new beginners' course, the science major can begin to specialize in the reading of scientific literature. If he has the time, it is, of course, far better for him first to strengthen his foundation with another year of more general study. The student interested in *belles lettres* can choose one of the usual third-year literature courses. He may not at first be able to read as many pages per hour as the student who has finished the usual two-year course, but, in view of his greater experience with the living language, his desire to read and his appreciation of the content will probably be much greater. Gradually, even his reading speed will surpass that of the other student.

Students who begin the study of a language in college with the intention of majoring or minoring in it would under the proposed system have an extra college year in which to pursue the more advanced work in the field. During all four years they would be dealing with the living language and not just with the printed word, as is so often the case. How much better prepared they would be to teach successfully and to enjoy foreign travel!

The suggestions which have been outlined have grown out of a deep concern for the future of foreign language study in the United States. If similar plans are already in progress in some of our colleges and universities, so much the better. Probably at no time in the history of foreign language teaching has the need for reorganization been more generally recognized, and it may be a long time before the patrons of our schools will again be as receptive to concrete suggestions as they are at the present moment.



# State Requirements for Language Teachers

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(Author's summary.—A study of certification requirements for language teachers as of 1942 shows only three states have standards as high as Prof. Purin recommended for language teachers in the Modern Foreign Language Study. It is accordingly futile to expect the "Army method" to find anything like universal adoption in our high schools.)

WITH the advent of World War II and the emergence of the Army Specialized Training Program for modern foreign languages, a great deal of calumny has been heaped upon the findings of the Modern Foreign Language Study and upon the methods and objectives pursued by our language teachers since the time of that study. Experimental courses are springing up in colleges and universities in an endeavor to adapt the "Army method" to the peacetime curriculum. One is naturally led to wonder whether the colleges are to give themselves completely to the aural-oral method in foreign languages, while the high schools will be forced to remain with the reading method and objective. Unless our secondary schools set higher requirements for their language teachers, it seems extremely unlikely that they will be able to make much headway in the direction of oral-aural facility even if they should wish to adopt the so-called new methods.

This problem, however, is far from new. The present-day enthusiasts seem utterly to have forgotten the recommendations of Charles M. Purin in the study he prepared in 1929 as Volume XIII of the "Publications of the American and Canadian Committees on Modern Languages": *The Training of Teachers of the Modern Foreign Languages*. I list below certain of his recommendations (Cf. *op. cit.*, pp. 96 f.) which, if adopted in the 1930s, would have yielded many persons well trained in the oral use of the more usual modern foreign languages:

For the major language, in addition to two years of high school work, not less than 30 semester hours should be required, of which approximately 16 hours should normally be devoted to the language and 14 hours to literature. For a teaching minor in a modern foreign language, approximately 20 semester hours following upon a two-year high school course should be required, of which 12 hours should normally be allotted to the language and 8 hours to courses in literature. An attempt should be made to measure the attainment of various skills on the part of prospective teachers by a more scientific and accurate method than merely by the completion of a certain number of semester hours of work.

An adequate oral command of the language should be required of all major and minor students in a modern foreign language who plan to teach the subject.

Whenever feasible, colleges should make arrangement to permit students who elect a major in a modern foreign language to study abroad in their Junior year under proper supervision and to receive academic credit in all subjects thus completed.

Extracurricular opportunities for practice in hearing and speaking the foreign language

should be provided by language departments through the organization of French, Spanish, and German houses, language clubs, etc.

Efforts should be made to induce educational officers to give up any form of certificate for secondary school teachers that does not specify the subject or subjects that the candidate is qualified to teach.

Graduation from a four-year college and the fulfillment of a major or minor requirement in a modern foreign language should be regarded as necessary to receive a license to teach that subject in a secondary school.

We have listed above only six of the fifteen recommendations, but they are sufficient to show that the recent demand for the oral objective in foreign languages is, in a great measure, not only nothing new, but is actually what was advocated, at least for teachers, by the Modern Language Study which the innovators delight in deriding.

As far as the colleges themselves are concerned, they had control over only two of the recommendations, namely those relating to the Junior Year Abroad, and to the establishment of language houses on our campuses. It is well known that in both of these areas steady, if not spectacular, progress was being made by the colleges, and the Middlebury Language Schools contributed greatly to college students who found it impossible to spend a year abroad. Other colleges and universities here and abroad were adapting their programs to the Middlebury idea: *Ferienkurse für Ausländer* drew an increasing number of our German students, a summer program in French at Teachers College, Columbia University, was conducted in Paris, while the German department at Columbia set up a similar program on campus. In general, then, until the rumors of war and finally the war itself put an end to many phases of these endeavors, the colleges were increasingly adopting those portions of the Purin report which lay in their sphere.

The thorn in the side of language instruction on the secondary school level, however, has been the fact that for many years schools have been able to assign all or part of their language programs to teachers who were well aware that they lacked sufficient preparation. Of course, we must not lose sight of the fact that our secondary-school administrators have frequently found themselves in a sorry predicament, especially in the period of the two world wars: In World War I, they were faced with a surplus of German teachers on their staffs coupled with a great shortage of French and Spanish teachers; in World War II, Spanish has experienced another boom while both French and German have receded. The schools could scarcely afford to hire new teachers for their swollen Spanish courses while their already employed German and French teachers faced no students. The only recourse has often been to give Spanish classes to teachers who had formerly taught one of the other modern foreign languages, and it was impossible from an administrative viewpoint to look too closely into the preparation that this teacher actually had in Spanish. The cycle of popularity and unpopularity of the various foreign languages has, no doubt, been

anything but beneficial to the cause of the modern foreign languages. In the early 1930s, when German was gaining, I have seen a well qualified French teacher given an elementary class in German, despite the fact that she had had only one college year of that language—and that in a city of 600,000 population in New York State! And in the midst of the present war the headmaster of a private school dispensed with all modern foreign languages in disgust since he could not tell from one year to the next which modern foreign language the students would demand. Thus his school became a "Latin school," for here he had the one dependable language.

Professor Purin in the study cited investigated the minimum requirements of the various states. It may be of value to catalog at this time the requirements of these states for modern language teachers as they existed in the summer of 1942. These will then show the impact of the Modern Foreign Language Study, but will not reflect any changes that may have come about in state requirements as a result of the ASTP language experience.<sup>1</sup> We should note particularly the *minimum* requirements since these show the amount of a foreign language a prospective teacher actually *has to* have in order to teach the subject. The state requirements as of 1942 were as follows:<sup>2</sup>

ALABAMA—Class A and B schools: 24 semester hours for a major, 18 semester hours for a minor; Class C schools: 18 semester hours for a major, 12 semester hours for a minor. Otherwise, 12 semester hours for any subject to be named on a secondary certificate (i.e., 12 semester hours is sufficient preparation to teach any subject).

ARIZONA—24 semester hours for a major; 15 semester hours for a minor.

ARKANSAS—Minimum of 18 semester hours for high school, or 12 semester hours for junior high school. (Deduction may be allowed to the extent of 2 semester hours for each unit earned in high-school, not to exceed a total deduction of 6 semester hours.)

CALIFORNIA—24 semester hours for a major at least 12 of which are upper division<sup>3</sup> or graduate courses; 12 semester hours for a minor, at least 6 of which are upper division or graduate courses.

COLORADO—No specific requirements. (Governed by the rulings of the North Central Association.)

CONNECTICUT—15 semester hours required for any subject. For foreign languages there is required, in addition, a written and oral examination which demonstrates proficiency in oral conversational ability, syntax and grammar, and the culture and civilization of the country. (The written examinations are held in January and August each year.)

DELAWARE—18 semester hours in addition to two units of college entrance credit in the language (thus making a total equal to at least 24 semester hours).

FLORIDA—18 semester hours above the first year introductory course (thus making the actual total 24 semester hours). (Two years of the language in high school is accepted as

<sup>1</sup> These data were gathered during the spring of 1942 by Jean Hemrich Dahl, then Secretary to the Department of Germanic Languages and Literature of the University of Washington.

<sup>2</sup> Some of the requirements are listed in "quarter hours" rather than in the more usual "semester hours." Two semester hours equal three quarter hours.

<sup>3</sup> "Upper division" courses are those designed especially for the junior and senior college years.

equivalent to the first year college course.) Certification in two or more languages may be obtained with 12 semester hours in each language above the first year introductory level.<sup>4</sup>

GEORGIA—18 semester hours.

IDAHO—26 semester hours (or 18 semester hours beyond the freshman language course).

ILLINOIS—16 semester hours represents the minimum allowable preparation (while for higher types of schools the requirement runs as high as 48 semester hours). (Credit may be allowed to the extent of 4 semester hours for each unit of language earned in high school not to exceed a total of 6 semester hours.)<sup>5</sup>

INDIANA—24 semester hours.

IOWA—20 semester hours for a major; 10 semester hours for a minor.

KANSAS—Class A schools 15 semester hours, Class B 12 semester hours (with a deduction of 2 semester hours for each unit taken in high school, not to exceed a total of 6 semester hours); Class C schools 8 semester hours (with a maximum deduction of 2 semester hours for one unit or more taken in high school).

KENTUCKY—36 quarter hours (=24 semester hours) for a major; 24 quarter hours (=16 semester hours) for a minor. (If one unit of the language is taken in high school, 16 quarter hours are required in college; if two units are taken in high school, 12 quarter hours are required in college; if three or more units are taken in high school, 8 quarter hours are required in college.)

LOUISIANA—18 quarter hours (=12 semester hours) for all languages except French for which 9 additional quarter hours (=6 semester hours) are required.

MAINE—Blanket certification with no subject matter requirement.<sup>6</sup>

MARYLAND—18 semester hours, preferably in addition to two years of high school study of the language.

MASSACHUSETTS—18 semester hours for a major; 12 semester hours for a minor.

MICHIGAN—24 semester hours for a major; 15 semester hours for a minor.

MINNESOTA—Will accept as a minor 18 quarter hours (=12 semester hours) of college training. (No specific requirements for a major or minor in any field. Will accept the major or minor from any accredited teacher training institution.)

MISSISSIPPI—36 quarter hours (=24 semester hours). (If two high school units are offered, the college requirement is lowered to 27 quarter hours [=18 semester hours].)

MISSOURI—20 semester hours.

MONTANA—45 quarter hours (=30 semester hours) for a major; 25 quarter hours, or 15 semester hours, for a minor. (Deduction to the extent of 2 semester hours allowed for each unit earned in high school, not to exceed 6 semester hours.)

NEBRASKA—24 semester hours for a major; 15 semester hours for a minor.

NEVADA—Blanket certification.

NEW HAMPSHIRE—18 semester hours for a major; 12 semester hours for a first minor; 6 semester hours for a second minor.

NEW JERSEY—30 semester hours for a major; 18 semester hours for a minor.

NEW MEXICO—24 semester hours beyond the elementary course for a major; 15 semester hours beyond the elementary course for a minor.

<sup>4</sup> Applicants whose native or home language has been a modern foreign language and who present satisfactory evidence to this effect may secure certification in the language involved with 6 semester hours above the second year college level, and three semester hours in observation and practice teaching in the language involved.

<sup>5</sup> Fluency in speaking a modern language, such as that attained by one who is a native to the country where the particular language is spoken, in individual cases may be accepted as a part of the teacher's preparation.

<sup>6</sup> Here, as far as certification is concerned, it is apparently more important to know how to teach than what to teach, for there is a requirement of 18 semester hours of courses in Education.

NEW YORK—18 semester hours beyond the elementary high school (two-year) or college (six semester-hour) course, making a total of 24 semester hours. Further a written and oral examination must be passed. (Any two Romance languages may be taught after 30 semester hours in addition to two entrance units.)

NORTH CAROLINA—18 semester hours in addition to two or more high school units, making a total of 24 semester hours.

NORTH DAKOTA—Any major or minor certified by a school, except that a minor must be not less than 15 semester hours.

OHIO—15 semester hours in addition to 2 units of high school credit.

OKLAHOMA—16 semester hours for a one-year certificate; 24 semester hours for a life certificate. (High school credit shall count at the rate of 2 semester hours for each unit, not to exceed 6 semester hours.)

OREGON—30 quarter hours (= 20 semester hours). (High school credits evaluated in terms of college hours may be accepted in meeting the minimum requirements.)

PENNSYLVANIA—18 semester hours.

RHODE ISLAND—Certification based upon a major or minor from an approved college.

SOUTH CAROLINA—Blanket certification.<sup>7</sup>

SOUTH DAKOTA—24 semester hours for a major; 15 semester hours for a minor. (Deductions may be made at the rate of 2 semester hours for each unit taken in high school, not to exceed total deduction of 6 semester hours.)

TENNESSEE—18 quarter hours (= 12 semester hours).

TEXAS—18 quarter hours (= 12 semester hours).

UTAH—30 quarter hours (= 20 semester hours) for a major, of which at least 15 quarter hours (= 10 semester hours) must be in upper division courses; 18 quarter hours (= 12 semester hours) for a minor. (A composite major may be held with a total of 60 quarter hours in three different languages, with not less than 18 quarter hours in any one of these languages.)

VERMONT—No subject certification; candidates are selected when they have completed at least a minor and preferably a major in their subject. (The University of Vermont requires 18 semester hours for a major and 12 semester hours for a minor.)

VIRGINIA—12 semester hours.

WASHINGTON—36 quarter hours (= 24 semester hours) for a major; 18 quarter hours (= 12 semester hours) for a minor.

WEST VIRGINIA—24 semester hours (with a deduction of 2 semester hours for each unit of high school credit, not to exceed 6 semester hours).

WISCONSIN—24 semester hours for a major; 15 semester hours for a minor.

WYOMING—22½ quarter hours (= 15 semester hours). (Deduction allowed to the extent of 3 quarter hours for each unit earned in high school, not to exceed 9 quarter hours.)

In his survey of 1925-26, Purin found 28 states still issuing blanket certificates to teachers, while a mere 12 issued specialized certificates only. In the remaining 8 states, he found both blanket and specialized certification. This situation has been remedied to an almost unbelievable degree in the past twenty years: The above list shows that only three states still indulge in blanket certification, while of the remaining three which do not specify any minimum number of semester hours of college study as a prerequisite to certification, two require a major or minor in the subject from an approved college, and the other is governed by the requirements of the North Central Association.

<sup>7</sup> A committee has been at work for over two years on specific subject matter requirements and hopes to bring in its report early in 1945.



Professor Purin also asked the following question: "If college credits in a major or a major and minor are definitely specified, what are the semester hour requirements?" His tabulation shows the following for a major: Thirty states had no requirement as to a major; one state suggested a major but did not set any requirement in terms of hours of study; six states required 12 semester hours; two required 15; one required 16; one required 18; two required 20; three required 24; and one required 30.<sup>8</sup>

In 1942 the requirements stated for a major, if the state requirements make reference to a major, are as follows: Twenty-six states make no reference to a major in defining their requirements; two states suggest a major but do not define it in terms of semester hours; two states require 18 semester hours for a major; one requires 18 to 24 s.h.,<sup>9</sup> depending on the type of school for which certification is desired; three states require 20 s.h.; twelve require 24 s.h.; and two require 30 s.h. Whereas in 1925 only seven states set standards for a major in foreign languages at or above 18 semester hours, by 1942 the number of states with such standards has risen to twenty.

Professor Purin's tabulation of requirements for a minor, when specified in terms of college credit, showed the following for 1926: thirty-six states had no requirement as to a minor; one state suggested a minor but did not set any requirement in terms of hours of study; two states required 6 s.h.; one state required 8 s.h.; two required 10 s.h.; four required 12 s.h.; and one required 18 s.h.

For 1942 the above listing yields the following tabulation of the number of semester hours required by state law for a minor: twenty-seven states have no requirement as to a minor; three specify a minor but do not evaluate it in terms of college credits; one state requires 6 to 12 s.h. for a minor; one state requires 10 s.h.; five require 12 s.h.; one requires 12 to 18 s.h.; eight require 12-15 s.h.; one requires 16 s.h.; and one requires 18 s.h. Here again a notable gain can be reported: While in 1925 only five states defined a minor in foreign languages as 12 semester hours or higher, there are now sixteen states with requirements at this level.

The state requirements as to a major and a minor, however, are only indicative of the trend of thought on this subject in state bureaus of certification. States which make no use of the terms "major" or "minor" may have standards just as high as those which do. The requirement that is of most interest both to prospective teachers and to teacher-training institutions is the minimum preparation that is necessary to be allowed to teach a given subject. From Purin's tabulation for 1925 the following rather puzzling requirement ranges emerge: twenty-seven states had no specified requirements; two states ranged from "not specified" to 12 semester hours;

<sup>8</sup> This report was based on 47 states, not including Mississippi.

<sup>9</sup> Hereafter "semester hours" will be abbreviated thus:—s.h.



two states ranged from "not specified" to 20 semester hours; two states required 6-12 s.h.; one required 6-24 s.h.; one required 8-16 s.h.; one required 10-18 s.h.; six required 12 s.h.; one required 12-24 s.h. in addition to a speaking ability in the language; two required 15 s.h.; one required 18-30 s.h.; and one required 24 s.h. Reduced to minimum terms, it appears that in 1925 there were thirty-one states where it was possible to teach a foreign language without any previous study of that language; three states required 6 semester hours of preparation for their language teachers; one required 8 s.h.; one required 10 s.h.; six required 12 s.h.; two required 15 s.h.; one required 18 s.h.; one required 24 s.h.; and one, in addition to 12 s.h., demanded a speaking ability of the language from its teachers. Thus, of the forty-seven states tabulated, there were only three which in effect demanded as much as six semesters of work in the language, assuming that the college classes met three times a week each semester!—and only eight more demanded as much as two years of work on the same basis! Today nineteen states require in effect at least six semesters of three hours each of the language taught, and twenty others require at least two years of work on the same basis.

The following tabulation shows in detail to what degree Professor Purin's report for the Modern Foreign Language Study seems to have speeded the evolution of requirements to insure teachers of greater competence than were demanded at the time of his study: In 1942 there are only four states which have no specific requirements for their language teachers, and of these one is governed by a regional accrediting association; two further states list no course-hour requirements, but do demand a minor from an approved college; one state accredits a language teacher with as little as six semester hours; one requires 8-15 s.h.; one requires 10 s.h.; ten require 12 s.h.; nine require 15 s.h., of which one demands in addition the passing of a written and an oral examination; two require 16 s.h.; five require 18 s.h., of which one suggests that this amount should be in addition to two years of the language in high school; two require 20 s.h.; two require 21 s.h.; eight require 24 s.h., one of these demanding in addition the passing of a written and an oral examination; and one requires 26 s.h.

Many of the states, as can be observed from the complete listing by states above, insist upon a certain amount of language in college "above and beyond the elementary college course" or "in addition to two years of the language in high school."<sup>10</sup> However, far too many states still treat foreign languages exactly the same as other subjects. It should be obvious that a student who has had three college years, or 18 semester hours, of a subject

<sup>10</sup> In the above summary I have tried to reduce these added requirements to the terms of the most usual language course by counting either the elementary college course or the two-year high-school course as equivalent to six semester hours. In one or two instances I may have arrived at figures from two to four semester hours too low.

such as English, history, or mathematics, is far better prepared to teach that subject in a secondary school than would be the case of a prospective foreign language teacher equipped with an equal number of hours of the foreign language. The reason for this is not far to seek: The subjects I have enumerated are not begun at the beginning in college—the student has already had four years of English, some history, and some mathematics in high school. He has already passed through the elementary stages of these subject-matter fields before he starts to accumulate the number of semester hours that will grant him certification to teach that subject in a secondary school. With the foreign languages, however, the problem is vastly different. Unless a state specifically demands that semester hour requirements for foreign languages teachers are to be above and in addition to the elementary course (two years of high school, or one year of college), a great likelihood exists that great numbers of its certified language teachers may never have had that particular foreign language in high school. In each such case, then, the standards for foreign language teachers will be lower than for any other subject.

Despite the great strides that have been made, there is thus still room for improvement. The most obvious change to be made is to place foreign languages on a basis with other subjects by demanding of prospective teachers that the elementary course shall not count toward the total semester hours required for certification, or for a minor or a major. Even this adjustment would leave us a long way from the demands of the AST Program. And one needs only return to the proposals of Professor Purin, quoted at the outset of this article, to see that but one state has measured up to his minimum requirements for a foreign language teacher: 20 semester hours in addition to the elementary course. Two other states obtain the same end by means of written and oral examination.<sup>11</sup> That leaves us with forty-five states in which we must seek to raise minimum standards to a level that will guarantee an adequate command of the language on the part of each certified language teacher! By then we will have at least attained the goal of teacher training proposed in the Modern Language Study in 1929. If our future strides in this direction are equally rapid, we may expect some of the stimulus provided by the aims and methods of the ASTP language units to begin to infiltrate into our secondary schools on a statewide basis in 1960—at least in three of our forty-eight states!

<sup>11</sup> Some others have substantially higher standards for their better schools, but these standards are not statewide and are hence not considered.

## *The Mirrophone as a Teaching Device*

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(An explanation of how the Mirrophone is being used by the French and German classes in the University of Illinois High School)

RECENT developments in the army training program have brought into greater usage the Mirrophone, a device valuable in the correction of speech defects and in the teaching of foreign languages.<sup>1</sup> For one minute or longer the machine records magnetically the spoken words on a continuous steel tape and then by turning a switch, it plays back the last recording made. In the process of making a new recording, all old material is removed from the tape. Since the magnetic recording can be removed without loss of equipment, the whole process is really quite economical in operation.

We, after having heard of the uses of the Mirrophone in the army training program, made plans whereby the French and German classes of the University of Illinois High School could use such an instrument that was available in the speech clinic at the University of Illinois. The usual problems relevant to a field trip had to be considered in arranging for this Mirrophone experiment since the clinic is approximately one-half mile from the University High School. Furthermore, the clinic had need for the machine at definite hours, but was cooperative in arranging a schedule when the Mirrophone could be used by the high school classes during their regularly scheduled class periods.

When a class met for the first time to use the Mirrophone, a brief explanation of the use of the machine was presented by the teacher in charge of that class. The instrument was turned on as this explanation was being given so that the words of the teacher could be "mirrored." This explanation was then reproduced in order that the pupils could become familiar with this new type of reproduction; and also so they might have an opportunity of hearing the explanation repeated. The simplicity of this procedure was pointed out to them so that they might feel more at ease when speaking into the microphphone.

The teachers of the modern language classes in the high school were aware that the problems in learning to speak French and German were not always the same, for each language has its own characteristics. The teachers, therefore, planned to emphasize individual and class drills which are needed in each language. Since the French classes were studying pronuncia-

<sup>1</sup> Modern Language Association of America, The Commission on Trends in Education, *A Survey of Language Classes in the Army Specialized Training Program*. New York, 1944, p. 23.

tion in French, the pupils were handed cards on which were printed lists of words containing the same sounds obtained by various spellings. A pupil was able to read into the microphone at a normal rate in one minute about eight cards with from five to six words each. These recordings were played back several times and if pronunciation difficulties were present, they were analyzed. The pupil immediately listed for further study the words he had mispronounced. Each pupil was given several opportunities to hear his own voice and then helped by the group in detecting his errors. In a class period of forty minutes, only five or six pupils were able to cover the whole gamut of French vowel sounds. Next, all pupils were asked to list particular sounds in which they needed especial pronunciation guidance from the teacher. Similar studies were made in connection with inflection and the spacing of word groups. Appropriate suggestions were given by the teacher to assist pupils in solving their problems.

In the German classes special attention was directed toward the improvement of oral reading habits. Therefore, individual pupils read short passages in order that a comparative study of different oral reading habits could be made. About six pupils could make a recording of two-line passages in the one minute allotted. As this recording of individual pupil's sentences was played back, the entire class studied the results. By this procedure, all members of the class were made to feel that they were participating actively in the work throughout the period. After errors in pronunciation and inflection were pointed out and discussed, a second recording of the same sentence was made by the same pupils in order to note possible improvements.

Rate of reading was also given attention. Pupils frequently read in an uneven tempo, pronouncing rapidly the words familiar to them but staggering and hesitating over the newer expressions. Pupils, after practicing on short passages, read longer paragraphs so they might have an awareness of a thought sequence. When these longer passages were used, only two pupils could make recordings in the given minute. Pupils frequently gave evidence of a feeling of accomplishment when such passages were read in a rather satisfactory manner.

Along with the oral reading practice the pupils were trained to comprehend the content of the material read so that question drill could follow. Recordings were made as questions were asked by the teacher on the material read. When the pupils replied, further study was made of their speech habits. Pupils were not infrequently surprised by the hesitancy with which they responded and were consequently quick in attempting improvement. They also tried to correct their own errors rather than to have someone else point them out. There appeared to be definite awareness of speech habits in this situation, at least more interest was shown here than in regular classroom drill. The novelty surrounding the use of the Mirrophone probably accounted for part of this.

At the end of the semester all French and German classes plan to use the Mirrophone again in order to check further on their speech habits. It would appear desirable to do this more frequently; but, as mentioned earlier, the facilities for University High School's use of the instrument are limited by distance and by the scheduled time of classes. Since the armed forces hold priority on all Mirrophones, our school cannot purchase one at present.

It is doubtful if the Mirrophone should be expected to replace the permanent disc recordings in the foreign language teaching program for the latter can also be used effectively in the classroom. For several years in University High School disc recordings of the voices of all French and German pupils have been made annually. These are valuable and have served to encourage the pupils to continue to improve their speech habits. Such recordings have the advantage of being used repeatedly and at extended intervals. Furthermore a pupil may listen to his own disc at his own convenience. However, such discs are expensive and budgetary allowances seldom permit more than one or two recordings to be made each year for any individual pupil. When pupils follow the study of a foreign language for three or four years such records make possible a survey of the pattern of development and the record of the degree of improvement on the part of each pupil. The progress recorded on the discs helps to motivate the pupils to continue their efforts toward a mastery of the foreign language being studied. They enjoy listening to the reproductions and appear pleased with these records of their achievements. Needless to say, such records may also provide occasions for a laugh at some mistakes in the early pronunciation.

The comparison of speech habits on disc records over a period of three and four years is significant, but probably does not stimulate the immediate speech improvement such as produced by the use of the Mirrophone. The latter offers the opportunity, before faulty habits are established, for an economical training of speech habits. Even a few minutes of time spent with the Mirrophone at a critical period of training may be very helpful. Since no other equipment is necessary, the Mirrophone can be used without previous preparation. The reproduction on the machine is clear and distinct and can be repeated until the pupil has achieved the desired improvement in his speech habits; however, a disadvantage is that it can not be left on the machine during another recording.

The characteristics of such languages as French and German differ somewhat so training practices must be adapted to the needs of the language being studied. The initial work done with the Mirrophone in the French and German classes in University High School was directed toward meeting the immediate needs of the pupils. No attempt was being made at that time to set up a definite permanent procedure, for then the program was purely experimental. However, with time and further experimentation, any better

general practices discovered in the work with each language can surely be adopted so that they will be practical and valuable for both.

The results from these experimental uses of the Mirrophone indicate that the machine offers many possibilities for effective foreign language training. It appears that both the Mirrophone and the permanent disc recordings can be used to advantage in English, speech, dramatic, foreign language, and any other classes where speech and language training is being emphasized. One machine need not necessarily exclude the use of the other. It is hoped, also, that the use of the Mirrophone can be improved upon through further experimentation with the instrument.

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## Critical Thinking Through Language

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(Author's summary.—Language teachers share with social science teachers an imperative responsibility for developing in their pupils the ability to combat propaganda through critical thinking. Language study, by making the student aware of the relativity of word meanings, helps him to detect perversions of language and of ideas.)

A LESSON of great importance for language teachers, and for all teachers, is implicit in Friedrich Hayek's *The Road to Serfdom* in its revelation of the means by which totalitarian governments come to power and maintain themselves in power. In his analysis of National Socialist propaganda Mr. Hayek shows how one of the most dangerous weapons of those who would destroy the freedom of the individual is the perversion of ideas through the perversion of language. Words expressing abstract ideas, political and moral ideals, are naturally the ones most subject to perversion and whose misuse is most dangerous. To what degree such misuse of language is typical of totalitarian ideology is not always fully appreciated. The situation is described in the *Road to Serfdom*:

Few traits of totalitarian regimes are at the same time so confusing to the superficial observer and yet so characteristic of the whole intellectual climate as the complete perversion of language, the change of meaning of the words by which the ideals of the new regimes are expressed.

The worst sufferer in this respect is, of course, the word "liberty." It is a word used as freely in totalitarian states as elsewhere. Indeed, it could almost be said . . . that wherever liberty as we understand it has been destroyed, this has almost always been done in the name of some new freedom promised to the people. . . . But "freedom" or "liberty" are by no means the only words whose meaning has been changed into their opposites to make them serve as instruments of totalitarian propaganda. . . . The same happens to "justice" and "law," "right" and "equality." The list could be extended until it includes all moral and political terms in general use.<sup>1</sup>

It might seem that the responsibility for preventing the acceptance of such complete perversions of meaning, in so far as this can be done through teaching, rests mainly upon the teachers of social sciences. It is true that, since language perversion is most immediately dangerous in the political field, an effort should be made in the teaching of these subjects to foster a critical attitude toward the concepts and words upon which political opinions are based. Certainly, the critical examination of the use of the word "freedom," as used in "the four freedoms,"<sup>2</sup> for example, might well be

<sup>1</sup> F. Hayek, *The Road to Serfdom*, University of Chicago Press, 1944. Pp. 157-159.

<sup>2</sup> Freedom is used here in two distinct senses, differentiated by Hayek as (1), the classical sense, of freedom from coercion and from the arbitrary power of other men; and (2), "freedom from necessity, release from the compulsion of the circumstances which inevitably limit the range of choice of all of us." *Op. cit.*, pp. 25-26.

undertaken in a social science class. The clarification of concepts such as "democracy," "liberalism," "security," and "power," which serve to shape as well as to express our ideas, should be a primary aim of the social science teacher.

But the language teacher must assume considerable responsibility, too, since language teaching can play a most important part in the development of fundamental habits of thought. Critical thinking, particularly the ability to detect language perversions, depends upon a knowledge of the relationship between language and meaning. It is because of the common failure to realize that words are not inalterably one with the concepts they are used to express that propagandists find it easy to produce confusion by subtly changing the meaning conveyed by certain words. Unless people are thoroughly aware of the fact that language is only the medium through which ideas are shaped and expressed; that words, although they transmit and contain meanings, are not always simple, immutable, and clearly defined meanings in themselves, they use language without realizing that it is the instrument by which they reason. It is this unawareness of language that makes them easily misled by propaganda and, once misled, completely inaccessible to argument. Hayek describes the confusion resulting from the naive and, indeed, unconscious, acceptance of language perversions:

If one has not one's self experienced this process, it is difficult to appreciate the magnitude of this change of the meaning of words, the confusion which it causes, and the barriers to any rational discussion which it creates. It has to be seen to be understood how, if one of two brothers embraces the new faith, after a short while he appears to speak a different language which makes any real communication between them impossible. And the confusion becomes worse because this change of meaning of the words describing political ideals is not a single event but a continuous process, a technique employed consciously or unconsciously to direct the people. Gradually, as this process continues, the whole language becomes despoiled, and words become empty shells deprived of any definite meaning, as capable of denoting one thing as its opposite and used solely for the emotional associations which still adhere to them.<sup>3</sup>

This is where language teaching comes in. The first requisite is to overcome the general naïvete in regard to language. Certainly nothing equals the study of a foreign language for developing the consciousness that language is an instrument whose use requires discrimination. Language, properly taught, shows that a given word is not always equivalent to a given idea, and that equivalent words in different languages are not true and perfect equivalents. If a student can be made to realize the inadequacy and falsity of a word-for-word translation, he has already come a long way.

<sup>3</sup> *Op. cit.*, p. 159. Cf. R. de Roussy de Sales, who in *The Making of Tomorrow* declares that: "The modern masses of Europe have lost faith in freedom and equality in the sense that these words have become mere empty abstractions and that they bring up reminiscences of the dual failure of Communism and capitalist democracy to achieve freedom and equality." *The Making of Tomorrow*, Reynal and Hitchcock, New York, 1942. P. 74.

And, the next step, the search for the proper words to carry over an idea from one language to another without subtly altering the meaning, cannot but leave the student with a very real sense of the nuances of meaning. I do not mean to suggest that the training thus afforded is in itself sufficient to safeguard the student against the snares of the propagandist. But it develops the all-important awareness of the distinction between ideas and the words through which these ideas may be expressed.

That the consciousness of language is only the first and fundamental step in the development of a critical attitude toward word meanings is obvious. To build on this foundation and train the student in the actual analysis of ideas, the critical study of texts in literature courses is the most useful discipline. The study of literature, conducted according to the method of *explication de textes*, requires the student to search always for thorough understanding of what the writer means to say, as a prerequisite to passing judgment; and it likewise requires that judgment be withheld or made conditional whenever the meaning is in question. Where several interpretations are possible, the one intended by the writer can often be approximated by reference to the views and opinions he has professed elsewhere. This approach could be used equally well in teaching history or other social sciences, but there is one disadvantage: because more factual material must be taught in these subjects, the time remaining for critical analysis of texts would be limited. Since it is essential that the critical attitude should become a habit so thoroughly ingrained in the student that he will approach all subjects with a certain wariness, a great deal of practice in criticism is needed. This practice, or discipline, can best be given through *explication* in literature courses.

Another way to foster critical thinking is to stress the study of the origins of ideas and the evolution which they and the words chosen to express them undergo. Language training is necessary for this purpose too. For often the original meaning in which a word was used serves to shed light on the currently accepted senses. Moreover, the study of how changes in meaning come about will give the student an increased and acute sense of the instability of meanings, and of the consequent need for a vigilant scrutiny of even the most familiar terms. But the linguistic approach to the study of origins is only one of many. The study of literature and philosophy and of economic and political history, from this viewpoint, is needed to help reveal how terms used in these various fields may acquire new connotations, perhaps through being associated in the popular mind with certain trends or philosophies, and may thus gradually undergo a complete change in meaning. The efforts of teachers in all of these fields must converge to expose the "pedigree of ideas" and to impart the critical method by which such exposures can be brought about.

## French Book List

FRENCH BOOK REVIEW COMMITTEE

THE French Book List for 1944, like the Lists for the past two years, comprises titles published for the most part in New York and Montreal. Its comparative brevity reflects the considered judgment of the French Book Review Committee that there has been a sharp decline in significance, as well as in numbers, of French books accessible to American reviewers during the past twelve months. It seems reasonable to expect that this temporary and quite understandable state of affairs will be radically changed upon the arrival of the first uncensored books to reach this country from France since 1940.

As in the past, the Committee offers its recommendations on the basis of (1) significance and general interest and (2) literary excellence. The letter A, following a synopsis, indicates works of outstanding merit, the letter B denotes works deemed to be quite above average, the letter C is used for readable but less distinguished titles. The present membership of the Committee is as follows: Professor Joseph Brown, Jr., University of Connecticut; Mr. Walter B. Dumas, W. B. Dumas Co., Foreign Book-sellers, Boston; Professor Lena L. Mandell, Wheaton College (Mass.); Miss Edith N. Snow, Swampscott (Mass.) Public Library; Professor David M. Dougherty, Clark University, *Chairman*.

### FICTION

Bernanos, Georges. *Monsieur Ouine*. Rio de Janeiro, Atlantica, 1943. 317 p. \$2.00

Unusual tale of the influence of a pseudo-mystic on an adolescent. Somewhat impressionistic style and the author's usual powerful characterization. (B)

Bordeaux, Henry. *L'ombre sur la maison*. Paris, Plon (Canadian reprint, 1943). 245 p. \$1.50.

Typically Bordeaux story of a provincial (Savoie) family, whose members, after the requisite number of false starts, manage to solve all their emotional problems. (C)

Brunet, Bertholet. *Le mariage blanc d'Armandine*. Montreal, Ed. de l'Arbre, 1943. 210 p. \$1.50.

Ten short stories dealing with French-Canadians in a setting of their native cities and countryside. Strong journalistic influence. (C)

Dekobra, Maurice. *Lune de miel à Shanghai*. New York, Brentano's, 1944. 360 p. \$2.00.

Lurid tale of the adventures of an American expatriate and her daughter in the Far East. Superficial. (C)

- Goffin, Robert. *Passeports pour l'au delà*. New York, EMF<sup>1</sup>, 1944. 375 p. \$2.00.

Novelized account of the Belgian underground movement. Principal attention is given to leaders, organization, sacrifices, bereavements. (C)

- Hertel, François. *Anatole Laplante curieux homme*. Montreal, Ed. de l'Arbre, 1944. 164 p. \$1.25.

Psychological novel whose interest centers about the chief character, the eternally curious Laplante who gradually evolves a liberal Christian point of view. (B)

- Maurois, André. *Toujours l'inattendu arrive*. New York, EMF, 1943, 299 p. \$1.50.

Collection of mildly interesting short stories whose setting is twentieth-century France. (C)

- Michelin, Marcelle. *Les riches heures*. New York, Brentano's, 1944. 146 p. \$1.50.

Six historical tales based on episodes of French resistance to the invader during the fifteenth century, done in the style and vocabulary of the period. (C)

- Poncins, Gontran de. *Jean Ménadiou*. New York, Brentano's, 1944. 332 p. \$2.00.

Powerful novel of the soil, set in central France of the nineteen twenties, built around the theme of an old servant's devotion of the family that he has served for generations. Magnificent descriptions. (A)

- Pozner, Vladimir. *Les gens du pays*. New York, EMF, 1943. 274 p. \$1.50.

The story of a Nazi's unsuccessful attempt to desert his station in Brittany. Translated into English under the title *The First Harvest*, this novel contains striking pictures of Breton villagers and Nazi officers. (B)

- Romains, Jules. *Les hommes de bonne volonté*, vol. XIII. *Les travaux et les joies*. New York, EMF, 1943. 334 p. \$1.75.

In this twenty-second volume of the *roman fleuve*, which brings the reader to the early months of 1924, the principal characters, Jerphanion, Jallez, and Havercamp, surrounded by a host of minor figures, are presented in the rushing atmosphere of business and pleasure of that period. (B)

- Romains, Jules and others. *Les oeuvres nouvelles*, vol. III. New York, EMF, 1943. 322 p. \$1.50.

Third volume in series contains an exotic short story by Romains, reminiscences by Raïssa Maritain, an account of the defense of Bir Hakim by J.-P. Besnard, a short novel by the Haitian writer, Petion Savain. (C)

- Romains, Jules and Maurois, André. *Les dix commandements*. (parts VI and VII). New York, EMF, 1944. 546 p. \$3.00.

The contributions of Romains and Maurois comprise pp. 259 to 367 of this French translation of the joint work of ten contemporary writers, all outspokenly anti-Nazi. The contributions of the French writers in question are short stories with political bearing. (B)

<sup>1</sup> EMF.—*Editions de la Maison Française*.

Vercors (pseud. of Jean Brunner). *Les silences de la mer*. New York, Schiffrin. 1943. 68 p. \$1.00.

American edition of the much-discussed tale wherein small-town Norman folk oppose a wall of silence to a sympathetic German officer quartered in their house. Much stress on a monotonous attitude of silence, little attention to extremes of difference between French and Nazi psychology. (B)

#### NON-FICTION

Aglion, Raoul. *L'épopée de la France combattante*. New York EMF, 1943. 452 p. \$2.50.

The most complete account to date of the Fighting French movement from June 1940 to early in 1943. Inadequate documentation and bibliography. (C)

Aragon, Louis. *Le crève-cœur*. New York, Pantheon, 1943. 62 p. \$1.25.

Verse expressing the author's early despair and later rebirth of patriotism, conditioned by the fortunes of France in the present war. A stirring personal and spiritual document. (B)

———. *Les Yeux d'Elsa*. New York, Pantheon, 1944. 85 p. \$1.25.

Collection of verse in continuation of *Le crève-cœur*, containing some of the most moving poems in French of the past decade. *Nuit de Dunquerque* and *Plus belle que les larmes* are particularly poignant expressions of moral and spiritual suffering. (A)

Barrès, Philippe. *Sauvons nos prisonniers*. New York, Didier, 1943. 120 p. \$1.25.

Uninspired picture of the treatment of French prisoners of war in German camps, stressing the efforts of the Nazi to undermine French moral and physical stamina, the results of mal-nutrition, the dire need of help. (C)

Bespaloff, Rachel. *De l'Illiade*. New York, Brentano's, 1943. 95 p. \$1.25.

Essay on Homer's *Iliad* stressing its timelessness, its cult of force, the question of irresponsible fate versus man's responsibility for his acts. (C)

Brodin, Pierre. *Mattres et témoins de l'entre-deux guerres*. Montreal, Valiquette, 1943. 244 p. \$1.50.

Thirty-page sketches of the lives and works of ten contemporary French writers, from Péguy to Chamson. Brief analyses, summaries, and excerpts from the principal writings of each one. (B)

Charbonneau, Robert. *Connaissance du personnage*. Montreal, Ed. de l'Arbre, 1944. 185 p. \$1.50.

Evaluations of unequal merit of the writings of such moderns as Duhamel, Ibsen, O'Neill, Bernstein, Mauriac, and Léon Daudet. Despite some superficial treatments, the book is of value for the standards that it sets for French-Canadian novelists. (C)

Cohen, Gustave. *La grande clarté du moyen âge*. New York, EMF, 1943. 225 p. \$1.50.

Excellent short history of medieval French literature, containing summaries of latest discoveries in the field, intended for the general reader or the student approaching the subject for the first time. (B)



Fleury, Jean-Gérard. *Sud-Amérique*. New York, EMF, 1943. 274 p. \$1.50.

Sympathetic account of the author's trip by clipper through Central and South America, showing a pro-Good Neighbor attitude, and summarizing the economic, geographical, and political situation in each country. (C)

Georges-Michel, Michel. *Autres personnalités que j'ai connues*. New York, Brentano's, 1943. 264 p. \$2.00.

Sketches of varying length relating the writer's conversations with a host of celebrities from Gorki and Mark Twain to Mussolini and Bergson. (C)

Gide, André. *Interviews imaginaires*. New York, Pantheon, 1943. 243 p. \$2.00.

Eleven imaginary interviews, which first appeared in *Figaro* in 1941-42, dealing with Gide's conceptions of literature, philosophy, and politics. The subtle and highly nuanced expressions of hope for the recovery of France provided much spiritual nurture for discerning readers during the occupation. (A)

Kessel, Joseph. *L'armée des ombres*. New York, Pantheon, 1944. 263 p. \$1.75.

To date the most penetrating account of French resistance to the Nazis during the occupation. Authentic and often painful telling of tremendous and selfless sacrifice, of moral and physical suffering, of great heroism. (B)

La Barthe, André. *Retour au feu*. New York, EMF, 1944. 300 p. \$2.00.

Stirring account of the ill-equipped French Army's fight against Rommel's divisions in Tunisia, which aided the American and British Armies in their victorious intervention in 1942. (B)

Laurent, Fernand. *Un peuple réssuscité*. New York. Brentano's, 1943. 280 p. \$1.75.

Well-known Rightist deputy likens France from 1940 to 1943 to a human being crucified, dead, and resurrected. Disconnected and superficial but contains interesting reports of conversations with such leaders as Weygand, Pétain, Déat, Herriot, and others. (C)

Laugier, Henri. *Combat de l'exil*. Montreal, Ed. de l'Arbre, 1944. 192 p. \$1.50.

A collection of articles previously published in Canadian and American newspapers and periodicals voicing the faith of a champion of French resistance in the ultimate victory of democracy. Suggestions for the role of regenerated France to postwar democratic world. (B)

Lecomte du Nuoy, Pierre. *L'avenir de l'esprit*. New York, Brentano's, 1943. 306 p. \$2.00.

A discussion of the achievements of modern science, intended for the general reader, presenting the thesis that scientific advances mark definite stages of progress toward an ultimate spiritual goal. (B)

Linné, André and Nessler, Edmond. *Les champs secrets*. New York, EMF, 1943. 246 p. \$1.50.

Another eye-witness account of resistance in France, in dialogue form, beginning in June 1940 and involving saboteurs, secret agents, and collaborationists. Somewhat confused and over-ingenuous (C)

Malaquais, Jean. *Journal de guerre*. New York, EMF, 1943. 332 p. \$1.50.

Well-known novelist, under arms in 1939-40, tells of the impact of war on the daily lives of the French people. Profound character sketches of soldier and officer associates of the simple folk of Eastern France with whom Malaquais was billeted. (A)

Maritain, Raïssa. *Lettre de nuit*. Montreal, Ed. de l'Arbre, 1944. 90 p. \$1.00.

Reprint of earlier edition (Paris, 1939) of thirty-one lyric poems, an expression of the mysticism of a recent convert to Roman Catholicism. (B)

Maroselli, André. *Des prisons de la Gestapo à l'exil*. Montreal, Ed. de l'Arbre, 1944. 135 p. \$1.00.

Exciting account of the author's arrest by the Gestapo, of his imprisonment and eventual release. One of many first-hand stories of the sufferings endured by many thousands. (C)

Masson, André; Osmond, Robert and others. *Cahier de prisonniers No. 7*. Neuchatel (Switzerland), Ed. de la Baconnière, 1944. 240 p. \$1.50.

French writers in German prison camps, of whom Masson and Osmond are the best known, express their love of France in deeply moving verse and prose. (C)

Nivelle, Robert. *Mais la France sourit quand même*. Montreal, Ed. de l'Arbre, 1944. 100 p. \$.60.

Anecdotal presentation of the spirit of French resistance to the Nazis, using typical incidents to show that few Frenchmen conceded final defeat. (C)

Picard, Roger. *La démocratie française—hier, aujourd'hui, demain*. New York, Brentano's, 1944. 80 p. \$ .75.

A strong argument for the stake of France in the ultimate victory of democracy in World War II, supported by an outline of democracy's century-old origins and later development within her borders. (C)

Romains, Jules. *Retrouver la foi*. New York, EMF, 1944. 167 p. \$1.50.

The philosophy of democratic ideals in France—ideals which will exist only so long as an intellectual élite which believes in democratic institutions continues to uphold them. (B)

Stern, Jacques. *Les colonies françaises*. New York, Brentano's, 1943. 397 p. \$2.25.

Essentially a plea for the preservation of the French Empire on the grounds that France has long ago given up colonial exploitation and has taught the natives to help themselves. In general, too favorable; but good sections on colonial advances. (C)

Vautel, Clément. *Mon film: souvenirs d'un journaliste*. Paris, A. Michel, (Canadian reprint, 1943). 316 p. \$1.50.

Highly personal story of the journalist's career, consisting of reminiscences which afford an intimate view, for the initiated, of the world of Parisian writers and press during the past few decades. (C)

Verneuil, Louis. *Rideau à neuf heures*. New York, EMF, 1944. 465 p. \$3.00.

Over-lengthy account of the writer's early career. Of interest to historians of the theatre because of references to important figures of the stage and to outstanding productions of the period 1911-20. (C)

## *Notes on French Usage IV*

### *Partitive Construction with Adjective Before Noun*

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THAT the partitive construction is difficult for teachers to explain and students to understand is not surprising in view of its complexity. Efforts to simplify the rules frequently result in faulty statements. Rules of grammar, however, should be phrased and taught accurately, in accordance with the best modern usage, even though the difficulty of mastering the language is not diminished. It is, indeed, better for students to learn French correctly from the start than to obtain erroneous ideas which may have to be "unlearned" later.

This *Note* is concerned with the particular rule which has to do with the partitive sign to be used when an adjective precedes a singular noun. Should the sign be *de* alone or *de*+definite article? Only cases which do not follow a negative verb will be considered, for the partitive after a negation is itself a special case which may be discussed in a subsequent *Note*.

Almost all elementary and intermediate textbooks affirm: "In the partitive construction, *de* alone is used (or the article is omitted) when an adjective precedes the noun." It is not necessary to give authors and titles of textbooks. While the wording of the rule may differ from one book to another, the writers are in virtual agreement. It is to be noted, however, that although the rule is stated in general terms, the *examples* are practically always in the *plural*: "*de bons élèves*," "*de jolies fleurs*," etc.

A few books venture to give examples in the singular ("*de bon vin*") but usually add, in the text or in a footnote, a remark to the effect that in familiar or colloquial usage, the article is commonly used ("*du bon vin*").

The *French Syntax List* of Clark and Poston should throw some light on correct usage in this matter, but although four and a half pages are devoted to the partitive construction, the *List* follows textbooks in declaring that "with preceding adjective, *De* alone is the regular usage," and in then giving examples in the *plural*. This occurs no less than eight times in the four and a half pages. (It makes no difference, for our present purpose, what the syntactical construction of the partitive noun may be, except that we are excluding, as noted above, cases in which it follows a negation. So we do not have to follow the *List* in examining the partitive noun in its various constructions: subject, predicate (affirmative, negative), direct object (affirmative, negative), object of a preposition, in apposition, or in an elliptical construction. The *French Syntax List* twice recognizes the possibility of using *de*+article with preceding adjective in the singular.

In the first instance, the example is *du bon vin*, with the comment: "Common adjectives are *beau, bon, grand, jeune, and petit*. If the combination adjective+noun has the force of a noun of class, such as *jeunes gens, petits enfants*, etc., the article is more likely to be expressed." The second instance is after a preposition: "Avec *du bon sens*."

Whether the partitive be singular or plural, *de*+article can of course be used if the combination adjective+noun "has the force of a noun of class," as Clark and Poston well express it, or the adjective and noun together make a sort of unit, like a compound noun or hyphenated noun. *Des jeunes filles, des petits pains, des petits pois* and the like have appeared in textbooks for years, but here, too, the writers have generally avoided the singular. Can the numerous cases in modern French in which the article is used even when an adjective precedes a singular noun be satisfactorily explained as examples of "nouns of class" or "units"? Or is the use of *de*+article regular in the singular whether an adjective precedes the noun or not?

One of the principal purposes of this *Note* is to affirm that modern usage cannot be understood and correctly followed unless a clear distinction is made between the *singular* and the *plural* in the particular aspect of the partitive construction that concerns us. Almost all textbooks as well as the *French Syntax List* fail to make this distinction. The rule to be taught should be phrased somewhat as follows: "When an adjective precedes a *singular* noun, *de* and the article are commonly used in modern French; when an adjective precedes a *plural* noun, the partitive sense is regularly expressed by *de* without article." The latter half of the rule must of course be modified by reference to cases of real or virtual compounds, like *des jeunes filles*, and the special case in which the noun is particularized by a distinctive adjunct, which is very rare outside of reference grammars. There should perhaps also be a notation to the effect that modern writers are likely to retain the article, even in the plural, in cases that are not clearly compounds. The second half of the rule does not differ essentially from the statements to be found in most textbooks. The first part, on the other hand, is contradictory to what is usually written and taught. Can it be justified?

Strong support for the phrasing of the rule as given can be found in the important work by Ferdinand Brunot: *La Pensée et la Langue* (Paris, Masson, 3rd. ed., 1936, page 111).

Even more convincing, perhaps, is the usage of such an authoritative writer as Jules Romains. From the twenty-four volumes of *Les Hommes de Bonne Volonté*, I have culled eighty-four examples of the partitive singular, with adjective before noun. In all of them M. Romains uses *de*+article. I did not find, anywhere in the twenty-four volumes, a single case of the omission of the article in the singular before an adjective.

The examples from M. Romains' novel can be classified, somewhat

arbitrarily, in three groups. It would take too much space to list all the examples; I give only a few representative items.

The first group comprises expressions that may be considered to be "real or virtual compounds" or to have "the force of a noun of class." Such are:

du beau monde	de la bonne humeur
du joli monde	de la bonne volonté
du bon sens	de la mauvaise volonté
du bon vouloir	de la fausse monnaie
du mauvais vouloir	de la petite bière
de la fine fleur de bourgeoisie de province	

A second group is composed of expressions in which the adjective is one of those that regularly precede a modified noun; e.g.,

du beau travail	de la belle vaisselle
du bon vin	de la très belle marchandise
du grand air	de la bonne grâce
du grand amour	de la bonne politique étrangère
du joli travail	de la grande chirurgie
du mauvais cuir	de la jolie confection
du nouveau matériel	de la mauvaise nourriture
du petit bois	de la nouvelle colle
du vrai sol	de la vieille paille brunie

A third group contains expressions in which the adjective is not one of those ordinarily included in lists of adjectives which precede a noun; e.g.,

du faux raisonnement	de l'excellente graine de héros
du pur luxe	de la fausse clarté
du splendide isolement	de la gentille agitation
du véritable argent	de l'honnête politique bourgeoise
du vrai secrétariat	de la pure bêtise
	de la très savoureuse musique
	de la simple distraction
	de la suprême aristocratie

In his *Sept Mystères du Destin de l'Europe*, M. Romains follows the same practice:

du bon travail	de la bien mauvaise histoire.
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Do other authors agree with Jules Romains? Although I have not collected as many examples from other novels as I have from *Les Hommes de Bonne Volonté*, I can answer in the affirmative. Here is a partial list of other authors, books, and examples:

1. Albalat: *L'Art d'Écrire*

du bon Rousseau	de la grande poésie
du vrai dialogue parlé	de la mauvaise herbe
de la pure et brutale photographie	

2. Albalat: *Comment il ne faut pas écrire*  
     du pur La Bruyère                      de la fausse psychologie  
     du très bon dialogue théâtral
3. Georges Duhamel: *Vue de la Terre Promise*  
     du petit monde                      de la bonne volonté
4. Georges Duhamel: *Le Désert de Bièvres*  
     "Ce n'est pas de la vraie gèle."
5. René Fauchois: *Prenez garde à la peinture*  
     du beau monde                      du mauvais sang
6. André Gide: *Interviews Imaginaires*  
     de la mauvaise littérature
7. Jean Malaquais: *Journal de Guerre*  
     du bon travail                      de la bonne soupe  
     de la belle prose
8. François Mauriac: *Le Naud de Vipères*  
     du mauvais sang                      de la fausse angine de poitrine
9. André Morize: *France, Été 1940*  
     du bon travail  
     de la bonne et bienfaisante propagande britannique
10. Antoine de Saint-Exupéry: *Terre des Hommes*  
     du mauvais temps

André Maurois requires special consideration. In his *Tragédie en France* we find, to be sure, according to the modern rule:

de la bonne humeur                      de la bonne volonté (twice).

But M. Maurois provides "the exception which proves the rule" by writing in the same book: "pour faire de bonne besogne" (page 141) and "ils ont . . . fait de bonne besogne" (page 204). To offset this, M. Jules Romains gives us "faire de la bonne besogne" (*Hommes de Bonne Volonté*, XIII, 114).

The evidence in favor of writing *de + article*, with adjective preceding a singular noun, is overwhelming. This usage should no longer be described as "familiar," "colloquial," "rare" or "exceptional." In contemporary French it has become literary as well as conversational, formal as well as informal. It should be explained by teachers and textbooks as standard usage, as a regular grammatical rule.

"FOREIGN LANGUAGES, AMERICA'S NEED FOR THE FUTURE!"

"AMERICANS, AWAKE TO LANGUAGE NEEDS!"



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## • Meetings of Associations •

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### A.M.L.A. OF PHILADELPHIA

THE ANNUAL fall conference of the Association of Modern Language Teachers of Philadelphia was held in Houston Hall of the University of Pennsylvania on December 2, 1944 with the president, Miss Annette Emgarth, presiding. Dr. Otis Green extended greetings on behalf of the Department of Modern Languages of the university.

Miss Emgarth, in discussing the question, "Is the Present System of Education Tending to Unbalance the Mental Diet of Our Youth?" spoke of the growing tendency of educators to crowd foreign languages out of the curriculum: this in spite of the fact that enlightened public opinion now looks with favor on the study of foreign languages. For this reason it behooves all language teachers to work together and present a united front against such assaults.

Professor Wm. Hendrix of Ohio State University reviewed some of his experiences in connection with the ASTP in foreign languages. The army objectives of hearing, speaking, reading, and writing the foreign language and learning something about the area in which that language is spoken are just as valid in language teaching in civilian life. Results obtained by the army program with its twenty-five hours of intensive work a week in an atmosphere of strict discipline and with tremendous individual motivation cannot be compared with those obtained in the usual high school or college course. The speaker offered numerous suggestions as to how a higher degree of proficiency might be obtained from foreign language pupils. Among them were the necessity of the teacher to speak accurately and to make the foreign language the language of the classroom; the advisability of having classes small enough to permit of every member being kept on the qui-vive; the constant use of moving pictures, records and radio to supplement classroom teaching. Dr. Hendrix emphasized the fact that in these days of global warfare modern language teachers often know more about the political and economic situation in various areas than do the economic experts.

According to the second speaker, Prof. Henri Olinger of New York University, there is a crying need for closer cooperation of language teachers—in fact all teachers—not only with one another but also with the National Education Association. Only by such cooperation can a national organization of teachers wield influence comparable to that of the American Medical Society and the American Bar Association. Professor Olinger claimed that a two year language course is only a compromise with administrators and urged the establishment of a four to six year course with laboratory periods for practice as is customary in the sciences. New methods in language instruction were also advocated.

In the discussion that followed, a number of the hundred or more teachers, administrators and lay visitors attending the conference voiced the opinion that both school administrators and the public were unfair in expecting ASTP results in high school and college language teaching. As one of the instructors in the program at the University of Pennsylvania said, "The men are not only of high caliber, but they have had, almost without exception, some experience with a foreign language before they come to us." A resolution was passed that a committee of publicity be appointed to contact the school administration and to keep the public informed of what is being done. Dr. Green made a plea for the raising of the standards of teacher certification in foreign languages in Pennsylvania.

The conference was followed by a luncheon at which Dr. Cushman, Director in Charge of Curriculum of the Philadelphia Schools, and Dr. Chevalier Jackson, prominent surgeon, were guests of honor. The latter, only recently returned from a four months visit to South America,

paid tribute to the friendliness with which he was received wherever he went. He paid tribute likewise to those of our countrymen in Latin America who, whether in United States government employ or in business, by their ability to speak Spanish or Portuguese have done so much to promote understanding between the two Americas.

LOUISE HIMMELREICH  
*Secretary*

## • Notes and News •

### ATTENTION!!! MEMBERS OF THE NATIONAL FEDERATION OF MODERN LANGUAGE TEACHERS

Greetings and best wishes for a successful academic year 1945-1946!

We beg leave to remind all our colleagues and especially the officers of our numerous local groups throughout the country to send us Notes and News of their various associations and interesting Personalalia.

#### THE CENTRAL WESTERN

Bulletin of the Association of Modern Language Teachers of the Central West and South

#### THE EXECUTIVE COUNCIL

President: Elton Hocking, Northwestern Univ., Evanston, Illinois.

Vice-Pres.: Phyllis Ward, 759 Burlingame, Detroit, Michigan.

Secy-Treas.: James B. Tharp, Ohio State Univ., Columbus, Ohio.

Delegates to National Federation:

1946—Stephen L. Pitcher, St. Louis.

1946—Julio del Toro, Univ. of Michigan.

1946—Edwin H. Zeydel, Univ. of Cincinnati.

Alternates:

Lilly Lindquist, Bd. of Ed., Detroit, Mich.

Bert E. Young, Indiana Univ., Bloomington.

#### ROSTER OF STATE ASSOCIATIONS

SECRETARY-TREASURERS, authorized to receive membership-subscriptions:

##### ILLINOIS M.L.A.

Prof. Cameron C. Gullette, 206 W. Michigan, Urbana.

##### IOWA M.L.A.

Miss Grace Cochran, Univ. of Iowa, Iowa City.

##### KANSAS M.L.A.

Miss Merle Fowler, 825 Western Avenue, Topeka.

##### MICHIGAN SCHOOLMASTERS' CLUB,

##### M.L. CONFERENCE

Prof. Antoine J. Jobin, 1110 White St., Ann Arbor.

##### M.L.A. OF MISSOURI

Mrs. Adolph Zech, Stephens College, Columbia.

##### OHIO M.L.T.A.

Prof. Charles Morehead, Muskingum College, New Concord.

##### TENNESSEE M.L.T.A.

Miss Mary L. Weise, 217 28th Avenue, N., Nashville.

##### WISCONSIN A.M.F.L.T.

Mrs. Jeannette Alk, North Division H.S., Milwaukee.

## PRESIDENT HOCKING'S MESSAGE

With the passing of our good friend Berkowitz, I take up his duties in our Association with full awareness of the responsibilities involved. The march of events is steadily bringing new opportunities to us and these inevitably entail new duties, not only for the officers but for the profession as a whole.

It is freely predicted that general enrollments will reach a new high in a very few years. Already there is a percentage increase in modern language enrollments. The result seems obvious.

But the abundance of "customers" does not mean an easy "prosperity." The customers will be more critical than before. With direct or indirect knowledge of the Army teaching, many of them will demand similar techniques. We cannot assume that the customer is always right. Neither can we assume that we are, or have been, always right. In our own ranks opinion is divided.

Does intensive training yield better results than the same amount of training spread over a longer period of time? Does oral facility develop reading ability as a by-product? Should mimicry-memory work supplant much of the traditional grammar analysis? Should we argue with our students when they say their primary aim is oral facility?

The only answer to these questions and many more is that we do not know—yet. We shall not know the answers until there has been a great deal of well-planned experimentation, with careful observing and testing. Hasty condemnation and premature promises are equally out of order. Mistakes and disappointments are inevitable, at best, but some of them can be avoided by making the experimental courses elective for students and faculty alike. And if all this sounds ambitious and expensive, I can only answer that the prospects for more money are definitely improving.

All of us have heard of the pending Federal legislation for subsidies to education. Perhaps you have seen the Survey in the April issue of *Fortune* magazine (a free reprint is yours for writing to the publisher. William Geer, 350 Fifth Ave., New York 1). All signs point to more support for education in general, and increased general interest in modern languages.

The greatest experiment in language teaching—the ASTP—lies just behind us. The greatest opportunity lies just ahead. Our problem is no longer what we can teach, but what we can learn.

## CONGRATULATIONS TO D. C. HEATH AND COMPANY

D. C. Heath and Company this year will celebrate sixty years of publishing. Late in 1885 the publishing firm of Ginn and Heath was dissolved and the new firm, established by Daniel Collamore Heath, started on its way with thirteen books and eleven pamphlets. These were chiefly in science and modern languages, two subjects that Mr. Heath had the vision to anticipate would play an important part in future school curriculums. In a recent interview, Mr. Dudley R. Cowles, president of D. C. Heath and Company, said, "We were fortunate that in our early years our steps were guided by men who as experienced educators believed strongly that an important part of their business was to advance the cause of American education by making as good books as it was possible for us to make. That purpose has remained a guide to the Company ever since. During the last sixty years Heath has pioneered in new fields, and recently has developed a large and strong list in the elementary field. In the high school and college fields Heath is going vigorously ahead to keep abreast of the many educational changes that a changing world demands. We have produced an increasing number of texts meeting educational requirements so closely that several of our series have been and are being used by the millions. It has always been our purpose to watch and understand the trends in education and to anticipate if possible or at least to meet promptly the educators' demands for textbooks as tools to carry forward their programs.

"Sixty," Mr. Cowles said, "is a fine age. We are old enough to profit by our experience; young enough to look ahead with enthusiasm, to redouble our efforts, and to do our share in meeting the new and difficult demands the postwar world will make on American schools and American publishers."

## SHOULD SCHOOLS REQUIRE LANGUAGE STUDY?

(EDITOR'S NOTE).—The Twenty-ninth Companion Poll conducted by the *Woman's Home Companion* brought forth some statistics which should interest our readers. The results of the Poll were published in the May 1945 issue of the magazine.

Many people believe that America's sons and daughters will find more jobs in the rest of the world after the war than formerly, and that with the coming of global airlines we all will travel more. In view of these possibilities, do you think our schools should make the study of at least one foreign language compulsory?

"Yes," answered seventy-three per cent of our Reader-Reporters, responding to the question in this month's poll. "It will promote better relations with other countries."

"No," answered twenty-one per cent. "Foreign languages should be available but not compulsory. A better knowledge of English would be more important."

That was the main question, and only six per cent of the Reader-Reporters had no answer. A cross-section of the pro and con comment is given below.

But we also asked where the study of a required foreign language should begin—grade school, high school or college—and which foreign language the Reader-Reporters thought would be most useful.

Almost half—forty-three per cent—thought teaching should begin in the grade schools. Almost all—ninety-eight per cent—agreed high school would not be too early.

Spanish and French, in that order, were thought to be the most important languages. We asked the Reader-Reporters to pick the "most important" and the "next most important." Spanish led as the most important, with French in second place. But French was first choice as the next most important language, with Spanish as runner up.

Trailing these two as the most important were: Latin, German and Russian.

Trailing as second choices were: Russian, German, Latin, Portuguese and Chinese.

It was interesting to note that French and Spanish were strongest in the northeast and south; Russian, in the northeast; Latin, in the east and west north central states.

## AMERICAN ASSOCIATION OF TEACHERS OF FRENCH Bulletin of Information

### NEW FRENCH INSTITUTE LIBRARY LIST (Bureau Item 46B)

The French Institute, 22 East 60 St., New York 22, N. Y. has available a second list of outstanding books on France and its civilization (in French and English) that were added to their library from June 1943 to May 1944. The titles are alphabetically arranged by topics—arts and artists, biographies, children's books, education, fiction, etc. Anyone interested in this list (13 pages) may secure it by sending fifteen cents to the French Institute (address above) or to the Bureau. Please remember that a similar list (no. 1) was published last year listing the books acquired by the library of the French Institute from May, 1942 to May, 1943. Be sure to specify which list you wish when ordering. List no. 1 is our Bureau item no. 46A; list no. 2, no. 46B.

## PHOTOGRAPHS OF PARIS AND MAPS OF FRENCH PROVINCIAL COSTUMES

These are available at the American Relief for France, 457 Madison Avenue, New York 22, N. Y.

The photographs of Paris consist of fifty-two beautiful pictures. They are the same as those in their fine calendar prepared for last Christmas, except that the calendar pages have been left blank. The booklet costs two dollars, benefits from the sale going to help relieve the suffering in France.

They also have an artistically drawn-up map of "Costumes de France," 27 by 22 inches in black and white. The pen drawings are by Valentine Tonone. They can be colored by students. The price of the map is one dollar. Only fifty copies are left. So first come, first served. Write directly to American Relief for France (address above) for these two items.

## INFORMATION WANTED FOR O.W.I.

The Office of War Information is seeking information for its Paris office on the following points: "Statistics and information on the degree to which French culture and history are taught in American schools and colleges; estimates of the part played by French art, science, and literature in the American educational program; brief information on institutions and organizations concerned with things French; estimate of extent to which the American public showed its sympathy for France after 1940 by continuing and increasing its interest in French art and culture.

The Office would appreciate hearing from anyone who can contribute any information on these subjects. Please write to Donald S. Cameron, Chief, Foreign Information Research Division, Office of War Information, 224 West 57th Street, New York 19, N. Y.

## WHAT DO ADULTS WANT TO STUDY?

The College of the City of New York, through its Adult Education Department, sent out questionnaires to the Public Library branches of the city to find out what courses adult public would be most interested in. The answers are most significant for language teachers. Out of 55,000 questionnaires distributed, about 5000 were returned. According to Dr. Bernard Levy, Supervisor of Adult Education, the following subjects were most in demand:

1. Conversational Spanish	627
2. Conversational French	456
3. Spoken English	341
4. Practical Psychology	328
5. Shorthand	232

MAP SHOWING THE DISTRIBUTION OF THE FRENCH  
LANGUAGE IN THE WORLD

(NEW BUREAU ITEM NO. 63B)

We have reprinted Professor Pei's map of "French as a World Language" for distribution separate from his article of the same name. Many teachers have requested the map in quantities. The map is notebook size, black and white. It shows at a glance the importance of the French language throughout the world. Copies are a penny a piece.

SENIOR SCHOLASTIC MAGAZINE—SPECIAL ISSUE ON FRANCE  
(NEW BUREAU ITEM NO. 64)

The March 26 number (vol. 46, no. 8) of Senior Scholastic Magazine, 220 East 42 Street, New York 17, N. Y. is an interesting and well-documented special issue on France, its land, people, government, economics, leaders, literature. On the cover is a map of France showing industry, agriculture and other features. The teachers' edition has class questions and a

valuable list of classroom materials on France. The students' edition is the same as the teachers' except it has not the extra jacket containing reference materials and teachers' suggestions. Be sure to specify whether you wish the teachers' or the students' edition. Either edition, 10 cents at the Bureau.

#### "AMERICANS FROM FRANCE"

Louis Adamic, the well-known lecturer and author, has written an article of considerable interest to teachers of French, tracing the early history of France in America and showing the many contributions of citizens of French origin to the civilization of the United States. While written for popular consumption in *Woman's Day* (the A. & P. magazine, Dec. '44 number) it is well documented, interesting, and most readable.

#### FRENCH FILMS FOR SCHOOLS

Interesting films are available to schools through the office of the French Cultural Attaché, 610 Fifth Avenue, Room 506, New York 20, N. Y., for New York City and vicinity. These 16 mm. films, with dialogues either in French or English, with a running time of 5 to 32 minutes, are from the collection of the office of the French Railways in New York City; that is, all were made before 1939. The only charge is for the expressage. For further information write directly to the address above.

(Daniel Girard, Director, AATF Bureau, Teachers College, Columbia University, New York 27, N. Y.)

#### ATTENTION!—WOMEN WHO KNOW FOREIGN COUNTRIES AND LANGUAGES!!

It took American women many years of struggle to break down the walls which barred them from colleges, medical and other professional schools. It required an even longer time to overcome the KKK-mentality of American public opinion which confined woman's province to *Küche, Kirche, Kinder*.<sup>\*</sup> In the years between the two world wars women made their most important advances toward participation in the industrial, economic and professional life of our country.

In government service women have for years been confined for the most part to the less important positions. Our State Department, for example, has always been reluctant about placing women in positions of too great responsibility. In a recent interview, John Ross, chief of domestic personnel, stated: "It has taken the war to show what jobs women can do. The whole attitude of the State Department now is that we need women, and want them, to serve both at home and abroad. We are now completely open-minded about their employment and hopeful about development of a career service for women."

#### Economics—Languages

This reform is now in full practice. The plan now is to start young women with adequate education in international relations, political science, economics and languages, at the bottom of the professional classification, as junior research assistants at \$2000 a year.

Young women will work in a variety of jobs, as "junior desk clerks" in the Geographic Division, for instance, on the desk of one country after another. A young woman who proves herself capable will eventually begin to take over the drafting of notes to foreign governments and the missions abroad, beginning with the smaller countries and being advanced in responsibilities as she proves herself ready for them.

#### Women Preferred

Of the young women who have been in training one left recently for Chile, where she will be a junior economic analyst. Another is in Brazil, where she is setting up the procedures and system for the regional handling of current commercial relations.

<sup>\*</sup> Kitchen, Church, Children.



Other government agencies give preference to women on their staffs as analysts, researchers, economists. Officials of the agencies say that the women are integral parts of their staffs. Some have their office in Washington, others are stationed in many countries throughout the world.

(*Another Language*, Published by Linguaphone Institute)

## SCHOOL FOR INTERNATIONAL AFFAIRS AT UNIVERSITY OF VIRGINIA

Establishment of a School of Foreign Service and International Affairs by the University of Virginia, to offer training for foreign service careers in and out of Government, and to provide for the study of international affairs as the basis of a liberal education, was announced by President John L. Newcomb. The new school opened July 2, 1945.

"The best interest of our nation demands specially trained young men in its manifold departments of international relations," Dr. Newcomb declared. "The young man who seeks a career in non-governmental service involving contacts with foreign countries must also possess that general background and specialized equipment which will be conducive to his success."

To meet these objectives, the student must first be broadly educated in the basic liberal arts, Dr. Newcomb held. During their first two years of residence, students will be required to take such basic courses as English, mathematics, science and foreign languages, in addition to such courses as history, economics, American government and human geography that will be oriented to the special needs of their advanced programs.

Every student will study for four years one of the major foreign languages and he will be required to devote at least one full summer, at the University of Virginia or elsewhere, to intensive study of the language exclusively in order to obtain a highly efficient practical command of it. During the last two years classes will be divided into smaller groups to provide individualized instruction and promote individual initiative and discussion.

## EXCERPTS FROM EDPRESS NEWS LETTER

*Battalion Schools:* Reports from London show that during the last 4 months an increase of 70 per cent took place in the enrollment of American soldiers in the so-called battalion schools—a voluntary system of education in the Army. Most popular classes at present are arithmetic, bookkeeping, accounting and business subjects. Farming and languages are said to be preferred to academic and literary subjects.

\* \* \*

"The program of the Office in the field of international education is designed to aid in interpreting United States life and culture through educational agencies abroad and to help our people to understand and appreciate the life and civilization of other countries. The Office will assist United States teachers and students who wish to study in foreign countries and will guide foreign teachers and students who come to this country for educational training. The accelerated demands upon the Office of Education for information about educational systems, improved programs for language study, and reliable teaching materials, as well as for the exchange of educational personnel, are evidences of a wide-spread desire for the development of a true understanding of other peoples.

"The Office proposes to meet these continuing and new calls for service in the field of international educational relations by providing a division which will have adequate staff and other necessary resources to insure a service commensurate with the job to be done. This Division, enlarging upon the activities of the present Divisions of Comparative Education and Inter-American Educational Relations, will be comprised of four units, representing major geographical areas with which international educational relations may be anticipated."

## ATTENTION—TEACHERS OF ITALIAN

ITALIAN CIVILIZATION—A Selected Bibliography of Italian Opera on Records<sup>1</sup>

Opera is the most significant contribution that Italy has made to the musical world and, yet, very little is mentioned in the textbooks that are now available for classes in Italian. With this thought in mind, the author prepared the following bibliography, which, he hopes, will help teachers of Italian to introduce Italian opera to their classes in an enjoyable, easy, systematic, and profitable manner.

The following procedure is recommended:

1. Borrow, rent or buy the records
2. Procure the libretto for each opera
3. Have the words of the individual arias mimeographed
4. Precede the actual playing of the records with:
  - a. a brief sketch of the composer's life
  - b. an outline of the plot
  - c. an explanation and reading aloud, from mimeographed sheets, of the words of the individual arias

With this as a background, even those who may be very little interested in good music will be able to get some enjoyment, thereby enriching their lives and making them more sensitive to the charm of operatic music.

It is the opinion of the author that all students of Italian should become familiar not only with the music and the plots of the most popular Italian operas, but also with the *words* of individual arias. This will naturally take time. One record, with the proper background material, will be quite sufficient for any one meeting. If this procedure is repeated once a week or every two weeks, or even once a month, the student will acquire a first-hand knowledge of several operatic arias, something of the general plot of the operas studied, and a few facts concerning eminent composers.

If some teachers, especially those in high schools, feel that time cannot be taken from regular classes, they can use the bibliography to arrange programs for social gatherings, meetings of the Italian Club, etc. The bibliography will also serve as a guide for those who wish to start a record collection of Italian opera.

## I. PRIMARY LIST:

1. *Aida*, Giuseppe Verdi, 1850-1901; Egypt, 1871<sup>2</sup>  
 Complete Units: C; V.<sup>3</sup>  
 Individual Excerpts:  
 \*a. *Celeste Aida*, V; Bjorling; Caruso; Gigli; Martinelli<sup>4</sup>  
 b. *La Fatal Pietra*, V; Ponselle  
 c. *Morir Si Pura e Bella*, V; Ponselle and Martinelli  
 d. *O Patria Mia*, V; Bampton  
 e. *O Terra Addio*, V; Ponselle and Martinelli  
 \*f. *Ritorna Vincitor*, V; Ponselle
2. *Barbiere di Siviglia*, Gioacchino Rossini, 1792-1868; Rome, 1816  
 Complete Units: C; V.  
 Individual Excerpts:  
 a. *A un Dottor della Mia Sorte*, C; Baccaloni  
 b. *La Calunnia*, V; Chaliapin  
 c. *Ecco Ridente il Cielo*, V; Schipa  
 \*d. *Largo al Factotum*, C; Stracciari. V; Gorin; Ramirez; Thomas; Tibbett  
 e. *Se il Mio Nome*, V; Schipa  
 f. *Una Voce Poco Fa*, V; Galli-Curci; Pons, Tetrazzini

<sup>1</sup> In preparing this bibliography the author had access to the 1944 catalogues of *Columbia* and *Victor* records.

<sup>2</sup> Place and date of first performance. Biographical data, etc., taken from various standard works on musicians.

<sup>3</sup> C stands for *Columbia* records; V for *Victor* records.

<sup>4</sup> The purchaser may want to hear all the recordings and choose the best one in his opinion.

\* Well known numbers.

3. *La Boheme*, Giacomo Puccini, 1858-1924; Turin, 1896  
Complete Units: C; V.  
Individual Excerpts:
  - a. *Addio*, V; Bori
  - b. *Ahl Mimi, Tu Più*, V; Caruso and Scotti; Gigli and De Luca
  - \*c. *Che Gelida Manina*, C; Martini V; Bjorling; Gigli; Martinelli
  - d. *Death Scene*, V; Bori and Schipa
  - e. *Donde Lieta Uscì*, C; Perli
  - \*f. *Mi Chiamano Mimi*, C; Sayao. V; Bori; Moore
  - \*g. *Valse di Musetta*, V; Bori
4. *Cavalleria Rusticana*, Pietro Mascagni, 1863; Rome, 1890  
Complete Units C; V.  
Individual Excerpts:
  - a. *Addio Alla Madre*, V; Caruso
  - b. *Ave Maria*, V; Schipa
  - \*c. *Easter Hymn*, V; Dusseau and Evans with chorus
  - d. *O Lola*, V; Melton; Martinelli
  - e. *Santuzza and Turiddu Duet*, V; Giannini and Gigli
  - f. *Vivi il Vino Spumeggiante*, V; Gigli and chorus
  - \*g. *Voi lo Sapete, O Mamma*, C; Muzio
5. *La Forza del Destino*, Verdi, Petersburg, 1862  
Individual Excerpts:
  - a. *O Tu Che Seno Agli Angeli*, V: Caruso
  - \*b. *Pace, Pace, Mio Dio*, C; Muzio. V; Ponselle
  - c. *Solenne in Quest'ora*, V; Caruso; Gigli
  - d. *La Vergine Degli Angeli*, V; Ponselle
6. *La Gioconda*, Amilcare Ponchielli, 1834-1886; Milan, 1876  
Individual Excerpts:
  - \*a. *Cielo e Mar*, V; Bjorling; Gigli
  - b. *Enzo Grimaldo and Principe di Santafior*, V; Gigh and De Luca
  - c. *O Monumento*, V; Warren
  - d. *Voce di Donna o D'Angelo*, C; Castagna
7. *Lucia di Lammermour*, Gaetano Donizetti, 1797-1848; Naples, 1835  
Complete Unit: C.  
Individual Excerpts:
  - \*a. *Ardon Gl'Incensi* (mad scene), V; Pons
  - \*b. *Chi Mi Frema*, V; Sextette
  - c. *Giusto Cielo, Rispondete*, V; Gigli and Pinza
  - d. *Regnava Nel Silenzio*, C; Pons
  - \*e. *Spargi D'Amaro Pianto* (mad scene), V; Pons
  - f. *Tomb Scene*, V; Pierce, Kent and chorus
  - g. *Tu Che a Dio Spiegasti*, V; Gigli and Pinza
8. *Madama Butterfly*, Puccini, Milan, 1904  
Complete Units: C; V.  
Individual Excerpts:
  - \*a. *Love Duet*, V; Giannini and Wittrisch
  - \*b. *Un Bel di Vedremo*, C; Sayao. V; Bori
9. *Otello*, Verdi, Milan, 1887  
Complete Unit: V.  
Individual Excerpts:
  - \*a. *Credo*, C; Stracciari. V; Thomas
  - b. *Dio Mi Potevi Scagliar*, C; Melchior
  - c. *Nium Mi Tema*, C; Melchior
  - d. *St Pel Ciel*, V; Caruso and Ruffo
10. *Pagliacci*, Ruggiero Leoncavallo, 1858-1919; Milan, 1892  
Complete Units: C; V.  
Individual Excerpts:
  - a. *No, Pagliaccio Non Sont* V; Caruso; Martinelli
  - b. *O Colombina*, V; Melton
  - c. *Prologue: un Nido di Memorie*, V; Gorin; Tibbett
  - \*d. *Prologue: Si Può*, C; Weede. V; Gorin, Tibbett
  - e. *Serenata D'Arlecchino*, V; Schipa
  - \*f. *Vesti la Giubba*, V; Caruso; Martinelli
11. *Rigoletto*, Verdi; Venice, 1851  
Complete Units: C; V.

## Individual Excerpts:

- \*a. *Bella Figlia Dell'Amore*, Quartet, V; Galli-Curci, Homer, Gigli, De Luca
- \*b. *Caro Nome*, V; Galli-Curci; Pons; Tetrizzini
- c. *Cortigiani, Vil Razza*, C; Weede
- \*d. *La Donna è Mobile*, C; Martini. V; Bjorling; Caruso; Gigli
- e. *Parmi Veder le Lacrime*, V; Caruso
- \*f. *Tutte le Feste al Tempio*, V; Pons
- g. *Questa O Quella*, C; Martini

12. *La Tosca*, Puccini; London, 1900

Complete Units: C; V.

## Individual Excerpts:

- \*a. *E Lucevan le Stelle*, C; Kiepora. V; Bjorling
- \*b. *Recondita Armonia*, C; Kiepora. V; Bjorling
- c. *Te Deum*, V; Tibbett

\*d. *Vissi D'arte*, V; Bampton; Jepson13. *La Traviata*, Verdi; Venice, 1853

Complete Units: C; V.

## Individual Excerpts:

- a. *Addio del Passato*, C; Muzio
- \*b. *Ahl Fors'È Lui*, C; Alpar; Sayao. V; Bori
- \*c. *Ahl Fors'È Lui; Sempre Libera*, V; Jepson
- \*d. *Libiamo Nei Lieti Calici*, V; Rozza and Ziliani
- \*e. *Di Provenza il Mar*, V; De Luca; Thomas
- \*f. *Parigi, O Cara*, V; Caniglia and Gigli; Galli-Curci and Schipa
- g. *Un di Felice*, V; Galli-Curci and Schipa

14. *Il Trovatore*, Verdi; Rome, 1853

Complete Units: C; V.

## Individual Excerpts:

- a. *Ahl Sì, ben Mio Coll'Essere*, V; Bjorling
- \*b. *Ai Nostri Monti*, V; Schuman-Heink and Caruso
- \*c. *Di Quella Pira*, V; Martinelli; Bjorling
- d. *Mal Reggente All'Aspro Assalto*, V; Homer and Martinelli
- e. *Miserere*, V; Alda and Caruso; Ponselle and Martinelli

## II. SECONDARY LIST:

1. *Andrea Chenier*, Umberto Giordano, 1867- ; Milan, 1896

Complete Unit: C.

## Individual Excerpts:

- a. *Nemico della Patria?* V; Thomas
- b. *La Mamma Morite*, C; Muzio

2. *L'Arlesiana*, Ramualdo Marenco, 1841-1907 and Francesco Cilèa, 1866- ; Milan, 1896

## Individual Excerpts:

- a. *Esser Madre è un Inferno*, C; Muzio
- b. *Romanza di Federico*, V; Gigli

3. *Un Ballo in Maschera*, Verdi; Rome, 1859

## Individual Excerpts:

- \*a. *Eri Tu*, V; Tibbett

4. *Don Carlos*, Verdi; Paris, 1867

## Individual Excerpts:

- \*a. *O Don Fatale*, C; Castagna
- b. *Per Me Giunto, o Don Carlo Ascolta*, V; Dickson

5. *Elisir D'Amore*, Donizetti; Milan, 1832

## Individual Excerpts:

- \*a. *Una Furtiva Lagrima*, V; Caruso; Crooks; Gigli; Schipa
- b. *Udite, Udite, O Rustici*, C; Baccaloni

6. *Ernani*, Verdi; Venice, 1844

## Individual Excerpts:

- a. *Ernani Involami*, V; Ponselle
- b. *Infelice e Tu Credevi*, V; Pinza

7. *Falstaff*, Verdi; Milan, 1893

Complete Unit: C.

## Individual Excerpts:

- a. *E Sogno o Realta?* V; Warren

8. *La Fanciulla del West*, Puccini; New York, 1910  
Individual Excerpts:  
a. *Ch'ella mi creda Libero*, V; Bjorling
9. *La Favorita*, Donizetti; Paris, 1840  
Individual Excerpts:  
a. *O Mio Fernando*, C; Stevens  
b. *Splendon più Belle*, V; Pinza
10. *I Lombardi*, Verdi; Milan, 1843  
Individual Excerpts:  
a. *Qual Voluttà Trascorrere*, V; Rethberg, Gigli and Pinza
11. *Lucrezia Borgia*, Donizetti; Milan, 1833  
Individual Excerpts:  
a. *Brindisi*, V; Onegin
12. *Mefistofele*, Arrigo Boito, 1842-1918; Milan, 1868  
Individual Excerpts:  
a. *L'Altra Notte in Fondo*, C; Muzio
13. *Norma*, Vincenzo Bellini, 1801-1835; Milan, 1831  
Individual Excerpts:  
a. *Ahl del Tebro*, V; Pinza and chorus  
\*b. *Casta Diva*, C; Muzio; V; Ponselle and chorus  
c. *Mira Norma*, V; Ponselle
14. *Semiramide*, Rossini; Venice, 1823  
Individual Excerpts:  
a. *Bel Raggio Lusinghier*, V; Bampton
15. *La Sonnambula*, Bellini; Milan, 1831  
Individual Excerpts:  
a. *Ahl Non Credia Mirarti*, C; Muzio
16. *Simon Boccanegra*, Verdi; Venice, 1857  
Individual Excerpts:  
a. *Dimmi, Alcun là non Vedesti? Figlia Tal Nome Palpita*, V; Bampton and Tibbett

JOSEPH A. RUSSO, Miami University, Oxford, Ohio

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## • Correspondence •

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April 12, 1945

TO THE EDITOR, *Modern Language Journal*

DEAR SIR:

In his article in the March *MLJ* (XXIX, 231), Mr. Robert Desmé writes as follows:

We also spend time and effort teaching the past anterior, which is used in company with the past definite. As the latter is not used in ordinary conversation, the past anterior is not either. The French use the "passé surcomposé" and say: "Quand il a eu fini, moi, j'ai commencé." Have you ever seen this tense in an American book?

The answer to this question is "Yes, several times." In the late Richard Holbrook's *Living French* (Ginn, 1917) this tense, called "plus-que-parfait surcomposé," is treated in paragraphs 103 and 111, and its use is called for in the exercise on page 98. In *Intermediate French, Grammar and Readings* (Appleton-Century, 1939), by Harry Kurz, it is given on page 80 as "an informal substitute for the past anterior," with two examples, one of which is from Renan; in the "Readings" it occurs once (p. 356) in a work by Victor Hugo. In *Transition to Reading & Writing French* by Hocking and Carrière (Farrar-Rinehart) it is given on page 28 as an informal usage.

Thus while undoubtedly colloquial rather than literary (Holbrook calls it a "somewhat rare yet colloquial group"), it is found in standard authors. I do not remember ever having heard it in conversation, and in reading many thousands of pages of French I have seen it perhaps a dozen times. On this basis it seems to me that elementary text-books are justified in omitting to mention it; the books cited above are not strictly elementary.

I doubt the accuracy of the statement that we spend much time and effort teaching the past anterior. A distinction is to be made between recognition knowledge of words and constructions, useful primarily in reading, and the command of an active vocabulary for writing and conversation. This distinction also applies in the case of the French imperfect subjunctive, which the student will meet frequently in his reading, but which he need not be taught to use in expressing himself. However, this tense may not be as obsolete as we are sometimes told. I have found it used by highly-esteemed writers of the present century in prose plays, which presumably reproduce the style of conversation; and the same is true of the past definite.

KENNETH MCKENZIE  
Princeton University, Princeton, N.J.

January 10, 1945

TO THE EDITOR:

The author of the following article is a sergeant in our armed forces in Italy. He is teaching a class in Italian there and the article is based upon observations he has made during this teaching. He enclosed this paper with his last letter, asking me to send it to some magazine that might find it of interest.

I thought the *Modern Language Journal* might find this article timely and interesting.

Very truly yours,  
O. L. ABBOTT  
Assistant Professor, Foreign Languages  
Michigan State College

As individuals, Italians may be satisfied, each with his own particular usage of the *Madrelingua*, but, as a nation, Italians are in a state of confusion, not unlike that of Gaetano Starace, the popular hero of Matilde Serao's short story, "Idilio di Pulcinella." Gaetano, in the presence of the girl he loved, did not know whether to call her "Lei" *alla toscana* or "voi" *alla napoletana*.

"Lei" and "voi" usage for "you" stands out as a knotty problem. Fascism opposed the use of "Lei," which is a third person form meaning "you" somewhat in the manner of the Spanish "Usted" and the German "Sie." Instructions to Fascist Party members, February 15, 1938, abolished "Lei" in written documents. Conformance in every-day speech followed slowly. Arguments advanced for abolishing "Lei" were that it was foreign to the Italian language, that it was brought in by the Spanish, that its formality and impersonal character tended to keep the Italian people apart from each other when they should use "voi" as members of a single integrated family.

The "Lei" form was vulnerable, since Tuscany is the only region where



it really took deep roots. Tuscans have continued to say "Lei" even after it was officially banned. In many rural areas in Tuscany to this day farmers address you as "Lei." It is an old tradition *alla toscana*, just as "voi" is *alla napoletana*. For that matter, "voi" is in the manner of all southern Italy.

The use of "Lei" is a matter both of geography and of social classes and culture. In the matter of geography, Tuscany itself presents an interesting study, since this region has for centuries dictated what is right and what is wrong in the Italian language, a dominance based on the undisputed authority of Dante, Petrarch and Boccaccio, all Tuscans.

Florence is the largest city in Tuscany and an almost completely cultural city. The state of mind of certain Florentines will demonstrate the confusion over "Lei." A university-trained chief accountant of an industrial enterprise with offices in Florence told the writer, "I use 'Lei' in speaking with women and 'voi' with men. 'Lei' just seems to fit a woman." A university professor of Latin and Italian literature registered almost no interest in the position of "Lei" in the Italian language. He volunteered only, "You use 'tu' with members of your family and intimate friends. You use 'voi' when speaking to an inferior or to a superior. You use 'Lei' with persons to whom you are indifferent." An Italian lady who leads Red Cross tours of Florence for soldiers says "Lei" is certain to return to its old dominance.

"Lei" is heard very little in southern Italy today. It is heard somewhat more in Rome where the writer, strangely enough, also found some people wanting a general use of "tu." In Florence, "Lei" is commonly heard on the streets. This is not true of cities farther north. People from northern regions tell American students of Italian that it suffices to learn "voi" with related verbal forms.

Italy's chief problem today is to stay alive. A state of chaos exists economically, politically and linguistically. Outside of cultured classes Italians have clung to their dialects. The masses have refused to accept the Tuscan dominance. With the coming of a new form of government a change will surely come over the language, but language must wait for a settlement of acute economic and political problems. When the change comes, will there be an organization authorized to unify Italians linguistically? Text-book writers, teachers and students, torn by the conflicting advice of language "authorities," will hope for unity.

SGT. THEODORE P. GARVEY

#### TO THE EDITOR:

In his reply to Professor Hilton's sound criticism of the system of adjective formation outlined in Denoeu & Hall's *Spoken French* ("Phonetics and the Technique of Grammar," *Bulletin of the New England Modern Language Association*, Nov.-Dec. 1944, pp. 23-25). Robert A. Hall, Jr., urges us to "turn the traditional approach around, and derive the masculine from the feminine," whereupon "everything becomes crystal clear," because "if we take the feminine as the basic form, the masculine of each adjective is derived from the feminine by dropping the final consonant, whatever that consonant may be."

The following are a few of the hypothetical masculine forms we would obtain by applying this miraculous invention (I purposely use Mr. Hall's system of phonemic transcription):

Feminine	Masculine	Feminine	Masculine
BREV	BRE	LARZH	LAR
PROPR	PROP	SAL	SA
GÔSH (gauche)	GÔ	PÔVR	PÔV
BEL	BE	LIBR	LIB
po-SIBL	po-SIB	MEM	ME
SESH (sèche)	SE	VID	VI
MÊS (mince)	MÊ	MOL	MO
ZHEUN (jeune)	ZHEU	NEUV	NEU
SEUL	SEU	fa-TAL	fa-TA
e-MABL	e-MAB	KLER	KLE
ra-PID	ra-PI	VIV	VI
co-MOD	co-MO	fa-SIL	fa-SI
u-TIL	u-TI	TRIST	TRIS
ti-MID	ti-MI	KALM	KAL
BRAV	BRA	fi-NAL	fi-NA

This would be, according to Mr. Hall, "in correspondence with the facts of the language as spoken." It "reflects the true state of the language."

We think it rather reflects what is apt to happen when our much-publicized "linguistic scientists" try to apply their "American Indian and African" methods to the languages of civilization. Something gets turned around, indeed. But it is not the traditional approach; it is Mr. Hall and his compeers. Such are the "new techniques," which "are indispensable if we are to analyze languages correctly and teach them successfully!"

MARIO A. PEI

Columbia University, New York

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## • Personalia •

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*The Modern Language Journal* records with great sorrow the death of Julian Moreno-Lacalle, professor of Romance languages at City College and author of a number of textbooks on Spanish.

Dr. Moreno-Lacalle was born, of Spanish parents, in Manila, where he was graduated in 1895 from the University of Santo Tomas. He began a long career as teacher and instructor in this country, when he became assistant professor of Romance languages at the United States Naval Academy, a post he held from 1914 until 1920. He came to City College in 1934, when he retired as head of the department of Romance languages at Rutgers University. From 1906 until 1914 he was the official translator for the Pan-American Union.

### WELCOME TO THE TEACHING PROFESSION

The Chancellor and Trustees of the University of Denver and the Social Science Foundation are pleased to announce the appointment of Wesley Frost, LL.D., former career member of the United States Foreign

Service and Ambassador to Paraguay, as visiting professor in the Division of the Social Sciences and the Center for Latin American Studies, March 26, 1945.

#### DR. FREEMAN TO TEACH FOR ARMY

Dr. Stephen A. Freeman, vice president of Middlebury College, has received a year's leave of absence to accept an appointment in the education branch of the Army, the college said today. He will take charge of all modern language instruction in the Army university study centers being organized in England and France for soldiers volunteering to study on a college level while awaiting transportation home.

#### DR. PADÍN OF D. C. HEATH & CO.

Dr. José Padín, member of the Superior Council of Education of Puerto Rico, was the principal speaker at the graduation exercises of the colleges at Rfo Piedras on June 1. Dr. Padín arrived Sunday, May 6, in Puerto Rico and stayed at the University's Guest House.

This will be Dr. Padín's second visit to Puerto Rico this year. The first was in January, when he was accompanied by Dr. Lindsay Rogers of Columbia University, New York. Its object was the meeting of the Council. Drs. Padín and Rogers are the two non-resident members of this body.

José Padín was born in San Juan, May 3, 1886. He received his B.S. at Haverford College, Pennsylvania, in 1907. The following year this same institution conferred upon him an M.A., and, in 1931, the degree of Doctor of Laws. In 1933 the University of Puerto Rico conferred on him the degree of Doctor of Letters. Dartmouth College, Hanover, New Hampshire, conferred on him the degree of Doctor of Pedagogy in 1934.

Dr. Padín started his career in the School System of Puerto Rico as a teacher of English and Subinspector in Corozal and Salinas in 1908. In 1909 he held the position of Inspector in Guayama. In 1912 he held this same position in Arecibo. From 1913 to 1916 he was General Superintendent of Schools. From 1916 to 1917 Sub-Commissioner of Education. From 1917 to 1930 he was Managing Director of the Spanish American Department for D. C. Heath and Company, the publishing house with which he has been associated for the past 28 years.

In 1930 Dr. Padín was appointed Commissioner of Education by President Hoover, continuing to discharge the duties of this office under the first term of the late President Roosevelt until 1936. He was President of the now abolished Board of Trustees of the University of Puerto Rico. He has been President of the Board of Trustees of the School of Tropical Medicine, the Board of Pensions for Teachers, the Institute of Literature, the Junior Red Cross, the Insular Council of Boy Scouts, and the Commission for the Prevention of Tuberculosis in Children of School Age; and Vice-President of the Board of Trustees of the Carnegie Library and the Y.M.C.A.

Among his outstanding works we mention *Nociones de Agricultura Tropical*, *Exhortations*, *The Problem of Teaching English to the People of Puerto Rico*, and *American Citizenship and Other Addresses*. Among the works which he has annotated for school use are: *El Mercader de Venecia* (The Merchant of Venice) and *Misericordia*.

Of Dr. Padín's addresses, the one which, without doubt, is best remembered is the one given in the Union Cathedral in Miramar in 1931, in which he stated the problem of the educational uncertainty of Puerto Rico.

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## Reviews

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BARZUN, JACQUES, *Teacher in America*. Little, Brown & Co., Boston, 1945. Pp. 321. \$3.00.

This is prescribed reading for every *Teacher in America*. The prescribed method of reading is one chapter at a time, preferably in bed, at the close of a long, exhausting day of teaching, in order to extract from each easy assignment its full measure of refreshing grins, chuckles and guffaws. Not that everything in *Teacher in America* is funny. Some of its messages come close to being tragic. But Professor Barzun believes in smothering even his most desolating truths in rich, savory humor. That they are truths will be at once recognized by every member of the profession. In fact, Barzun has assumed in this volume the role of a spokesman for all of us—an entertaining, lovable, but utterly sincere, completely fearless spokesman, of the kind that won't be shushed.

There is little in the academic world that escapes his scrutinizing eye and gently vitriolic pen. "Education" as a panacea for all of society's shortcomings, the layman's vision of the teacher as an overpaid, underworked gentleman or lady of leisure, the vagaries of educationists, methodologists and progressive schools, "hokum" as the backbone of many educational theories and practices, "science" and "scientific measurements" as idols we must all worship, administrators administering what they love out of existence, the myth of "scholarship" as represented by the ubiquitous "Ph. D. Octopus," even the sinful waste involved in education for women come under his revealing searchlight. It is not to be expected or desired that each of us will agree with every point he makes. But none of us can fail to thank him for bringing each point into the cold, clear light of day.

Other reviewers have already selected and publicized the best of his pithy utterances. Here are a few that have hitherto escaped notice, though they speak volumes: "Appreciation (of music and literature) does not mean gush"; "The University does not simply respect, it enforces tradition"; "Scholars peck at it (a literary text) like domestic fowl"; "Perfectionism in education is a false idol which too often induces paralysis"; "The truth about inequality of brains is unpalatable, nay, undemocratic"; "Modern literacy is half-baked and arrogant."

"Tongues and Areas" is, naturally enough, the chapter of greatest interest to language teachers. Here Barzun knows whereof he speaks, because he formed part of a "Language and Area" instructional unit. The secret of "the Army and Navy's victorious inoculation of the anti-linguistic American boy," he informs his readers, was simply Concentration, with a large capital C. "The men were segregated, put in charge of foreign instructors, drilled morning, noon and night under conditions of prisonlike rigidity. Standards were high, and failures from laziness or incapacity were weeded out as fast as they showed up. . . . Two powerful motives were at work: the negative fear of not keeping up and therefore being returned to the ranks, and the positive wish for a commission and the pay that goes with it."

Realistically, he tells us that there is absolutely no chance of duplicating these conditions in high school or college. But there are some things we can learn from the Army experience: first, its lack of prejudice against languages as a whole or individual languages (this is dedicated to college presidents, high school boards, and those of us who think all language and cultural values are wrapped up in one language); secondly, the essential nonsense of the cant phrase that "languages must be taught only as a tool," which never has meant and never will mean anything; thirdly, that "language must be learned close to its living sources," which means that "the scholarly tradition of philology" and the selection of "some academically chosen century of greatness, swamping everything before and since," tend to strangle language-teaching.

"Area" courses, Barzun fears, are like the old "vaudeville" courses; they have an aura of false practicality. To make a student at once a specialist in the political, religious, military, legal, economic and educational institutions, the manners and morals, the charitable organizations and public health, the history, science and technology, literature and fine arts of a given "area" is superlatively impractical, and will lead to much superficiality. "A potpourri mixed for the occasion and justified by the emergency" is what both government agencies and business firms are likely to have sold to them from the area specialization fields.

On the other hand, the linking of languages with geography, and the presentation of several related languages at once will, in Barzun's opinion, yield satisfactory results. This reviewer is fortunately in a position to substantiate, from his own experience, the author's claims.

One thing we miss, in the author's discussion of the Ph. D. Octopus and his merciless flaying of methods for methods' own sake, is an exposé of the "new methodology" that is a by-product of the Intensive Language and ASTP programs. It would have made good reading, coming from Barzun's pen. The old psychological and educationist methodologists did much to hinder the cause of efficient language teaching. The new menace of the "linguistic scientists," with their reduction of all tongues to the least common denominator and their ruthless suppression of all cultural hierarchies, arises just as languages are beginning to take their rightful place in the American curriculum. In both cases, the underlying fallacy and disease are the same—people prescribing how to teach what they don't know, and endeavoring to set up an academic racket to which the real specialists must pay tribute. But perhaps the author is holding in reserve one of his customary brilliant articles, in which the up-to-date methodological cards will be laid on the table.

MARIO A. PEI

Columbia University  
New York, N. Y.

PICARD, ROGER, *Artifices et mystifications littéraires*, Les Editions Variétés, Dussault et Péladeau, Montréal, Canada.

M. Picard has written a scholarly book on a rather frivolous subject: practical jokes in the literary world. These jokes may be of a low order like the trick played on poor Santeuil and which caused his death or the visits of the three Racans to a bewildered Mademoiselle de Gournay. They may be of a high order and played on the public at large like MacPherson's publication of the poems of Ossian or Mérimée's: *Le théâtre de Clara Gazul*. M. Picard gives space and thought to all of them.

What is behind this gentle practice of spoofing the reader? Mr. Picard studies the question at length. But whether the incentive was to have fun at the expense of gullible critics or to take a revenge on a public who has shown little appreciation of the author's own work, the results have often been far more reaching than it was intended. The *Guzla*, for example, started serious studies of the folk-lore of Slavic civilization.

What about imitation and plagiat? It may be said for them that many unimportant authors of the seventeenth century are known only because Racine, Molière and La Fontaine plagiarized them or rather gave life and substance to what had been a good idea lost in mediocre writing.

Because of the wide range of the subject, the book gives only a sketchy treatment of such problems as: did Shakespeare write Shakespeare's plays or is Rouget de Lisle the author of *La Marseillaise*. But in the course of his investigation, M. Picard introduces the readers to many literary milieus, many little known literary characters. And thanks to a number of amusing anecdotes the book makes for entertaining reading.

ALICE LANCELLIER

Finch Junior College  
New York City

MICAUD, CHARLES A., *L'Armée Moderne*, Boston, D. C. Heath, 1944. 142 pp.

France plays again an increasingly important part on the Allied side in this war. Several French aviator friends of ours are busily engaged right now in translating technical material into French at nearby fields in the South. A number of text-books on military French have appeared in this country in the past years: such as Sheffer's *Aspects de la guerre moderne* (sketchy), Sullivan and Locke's *La Guerre moderne* (a mosaic of sundry extracts borrowed from French writers), Denoeu's *Military French* (made with an eye to widespread class use, but only semi-technical).

The text we examine here has its own legitimate place beside those, for *L'Armée moderne* is faithful to its purpose, as expressed in the Preface, "to give the student an adequate knowledge of military French in a concise text presented in the factual style of military manuals and reviews." It is quite teachable, with a good system of foot-notes completed by a regular French-English vocabulary at the end of the book. This manual could be used as a valuable side-dish anywhere, but it is meant rather for military academies.

The author, Charles A. Micaud, Ph.D., is an instructor at the U.S.M.A.; he has had the expert help of many officers at West Point, which is almost a guarantee of first-hand competence as to content and form. This small volume is very neat and practical. Even amateurs will want to own it.

A few small flaws do come to mind; they are of the following types:

1. Passages not entirely clear. For instance in Aviation chapter, on p. 58, where one does not know for sure from the text which motors are air- and which water-cooled; besides the fact that the best American pursuit plane still has a radial engine (Thunderbolt P47), presenting the advantages of being more easily repaired and more efficient in more climates through the air-cooling.

2. Not 100% perfect French. On p. 96 "*troupes amphibieuses*" instead of *amphibies*; p. 87 "*l'ennemi progresse jusqu'à la proximité*" for *au voisinage*; p. 94 "*transports par voies terrestres*," where I should prefer *voie de terre* to balance the common expression *voie de mer*; p. 75 *apparat* for *parall.* Moreover on p. 83, walkie-talkie perhaps correctly but elaborately rendered by "*le radio émetteur et récepteur*" (in actual practice just "*un émetteur-récepteur*"), to which one ought to add "*portatif*," and still he would have a descriptive periphrase instead of the genuine article . . . Likewise booby-trap is not necessarily *mine-piège*, which is too specific, just as "*attrape-nigaud*" would be too general.

3. The abbreviations given on pp. 101-105 are not all so well established as some. (DCA for anti-aircraft is well-known, at least to an older generation; while GA for group of armies or airplane group should not be made into a fetish).

Must we not frankly state that some of the American terms do not have, or not yet, any near equivalent abroad, sometimes in part because the invention is an American one? Of course often an invention is French, but is found more profitable to patent it in the U.S.A. America presents an amazingly picturesque verbal creativeness. Other languages and peoples of the world should watch out, lest they be outdistanced by a more expressive Yankee lingo even in military matters, which so far had not been a field of very constant preoccupation over here. The latest editions of French Air Corps regulations show the French technical language of aviation undergoing great changes, becoming a Franco-American jargon, partly because French flying units are so closely bound with America (and England) in their training and their status at the front. The younger new personnel no longer talk of "*attaque au sol*" but of "*strafing*" (pronounced with an *a* antérieur); even DCA (*défense contre avions*) is obsolescent in favor of "*la flak*," DCB (*défense contre blindés*) becomes "*pounder*." The terminology is sometimes so unsettled that one hears "*un beams*" for "*a beam*" (the justification for this being "*un faisceau de rayons*" . . .).



So *L'Armée moderne*, though nobody's brass-hat, had quite a job on its hands. And how about the 40-odd Immortals whenever they get around to trying to catch up with a time that sure enough flies on? . . .

ANTONY CONSTANS

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Birmingham, Alabama

AXELRAD, JACOB, *Anatole France. A Life without Illusions*. New York, Harper and Brothers, 1944. 480 pages.

Mr. Axelrad's biography of Anatole France is written with all the gusto of a real *aficionado*. It is distinguished by an emphasis upon the evolution of the novelist's political and social ideology and by the increased light and importance given to Madame de Caillavet's role in her protégé's literary development and success. The author was in a peculiarly advantageous position to handle both of these themes. He had access to unpublished material, including France's secret diary and letters addressed to his mistress, and he had the benefit of the notes and personal help of Madame Simone André-Maurois (*sic*), the granddaughter of Madame de Caillavet. Moreover, Mr. Axelrad, the publishers inform us, is a Socialist, who has taken an active part in politics, and he therefore brings to his task a keen sensitivity to the subtle nuances of social doctrine.

Doubly armed then with his skill and special knowledge, the author has ably traced the Master's socio-political development from that contemporaneous form of Fascism known as Boulangism to an ardent Socialism, and even to a temporary and hesitant Communism. The biographer conceives of this conversion to libertarianism, effected under the tutelage of Jaurès, Clémenceau, and Zola, as the turning-point of Anatole France's whole existence. Calling the two almost equal halves of the famous skeptic's life "Escape" and "Revolt," he has set the Dreyfus Affair as the dividing point. This event, which stirred all Frenchmen to the depths of their nationalistic or liberalistic souls, brought timid, scholarly Anatole France out of his study into the activity and passion of the agora. Not only does he boldly show himself to be a Dreyfusard in the latter parts of his *Histoire contemporaine*, compose a most eloquent plea for the underprivileged in *Crainguebille*, and paint a striking picture of a future socialistic Utopia in the less known *Sur la Pierre blanche*, but he also makes public speeches (which he always reads), attends political rallies, pacifist meetings, conferences for the Rights of Man, and congresses for Free Thought. Everywhere his voice is pleading for the amelioration of man's lot. Such a climactic presentation of the great ironist's life is perhaps an over-simplification, but it certainly lends a dramatic interest to what was, in the main, a tranquil, uneventful existence.

The great importance which the author attributes to the influence of Madame de Caillavet in the composition of Anatole France's *opera* may find some objectors. As an example, Mr. Axelrad affirms unequivocally (p. 220) that Madame de Caillavet wrote the preface (signed by France) for Marcel Proust's *Les Plaisirs et les Jours*. But E. P. Dargan, in his most scholarly life (*Anatole France*, New York, Oxford University Press, 1937, p. 287), relying on both internal and external evidence, and supported by several authorities, concludes that France himself did the preface. If Mr. Axelrad has had access to further evidence on this point through the kindness of Madame Maurois, or otherwise, he should have stated his documentation. And this brings us to the remark that the lack of any references has taken away much of the value of this biography to the scholar. As Pierre Champion has said, "An historical work without notes becomes a work of fiction."

In the matter of style, this book leaves something to be desired. The author gives the impression of straining after striking effects so that the reader too often has his attention distracted from the subject, which has no need of the aid of rococo adornment. Certain incorrect

usages (malingerer, pp. 21, 118, encompassed, p. 71, transpired, p. 100, the Provence, p. 355), solecisms, and slang should have been eliminated before publication. Moreover, the innumerable attempts at punning become painful in so serious a book. What a contrast with the Master's chaste classical style!

It must be admitted also that the Anatole France depicted by Mr. Axelrad is a pathetic and inglorious figure. In most of the decisive moments of his life—in the Franco-Prussian War episodes, in his relationship with his wife, his daughter, and Madame de Caillavet, in his apologizing to Leconte de Lisle to avoid a duel, in his volunteering for active service in the World War, an action represented by the author as prompted by fear—France comes perilously close to giving the appearance of a pusillanimous weakling, devoid of principles. Gone is any trace of the heroic. One often wonders whether the present biographer, despite his obvious sympathy for his subject, is fully aware of the way he has demolished a character. In his invidious analysis of motives and principles he has composed a biography that is really “without illusions.” Whether Anatole France's actual life (as distinguished from this account of it) was entirely lacking in illusion is questionable. The parting words of his last work, which, coming at the close of a long life, have all the seriousness of a literary testament are:

“J'aime la vérité. Je crois que l'humanité en a besoin; mais certes elle a bien plus grand besoin encore du mensonge qui la flatte, la console, lui donne des espérances infinies. Sans le mensonge, elle périrait de désespoir et d'ennui.”

These are not the observations of a disillusioned man; they are the act of faith of a conscious artist who is a maker of illusions, an evoker of dreams.

RICHARD PARKER

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New York, N. Y.

DORVAL, MARCEL, et CARLU, JEAN. *Le Coeur sur la main*. New York, Brentano's, 1943. 152 pp.

Here is a little book whose original edition, the publisher says, “has won such success that it is now out of print.” Indeed, he adds, this popularity confirms Martial's epigram: “If you are wise, laugh!” This book, then, is intended merely to entertain us, and so all criticism is disarmed from the start. Who could be so ill-natured as to pick flaws in a work which its author asks us not to “take too seriously”?

Yet in a review addressed to people supposed to be serious and even “wise,” we may still have a right to offer a few friendly little criticisms, or even to say quite frankly that we absolutely disapprove of this sort of manual. Despite its amusing burlesque, we recognize in it one of our outstanding enemies, namely the idiom-list, idioms lined up outside of any context, idioms without sentences! We know from very long experience how dangerous such lists are for studious but naive youth. How often have we seen students who knew by heart every French idiom, all the way from *avoir beau* and *en vouloir à* to *dormir à la belle étoile*, but who were absolutely incapable of using them correctly in a sentence! I am afraid that *Le Coeur sur la main* may cause further havoc in these youthful minds.

It is all very well to offer us these idioms specially chosen for their picturesque appeal, so that the great artist Jean Carlu could draw the comical sketches which they suggest. Nevertheless they are idioms in a vacuum, and perhaps all the more dangerous because along with them are printed alleged English equivalents, likewise picturesque, but unfortunately often not equivalent in either meaning or construction. To quote at random:

*filer droit*  
*mettre les pouces*  
*faire main basse*

*to lead by the nose*  
*to be high-handed*  
*to be light-fingered*

Here we see the double danger for the average student who will serenely translate *l'enfant filait droit devant son père* as “the child led by the nose before his father”—or *il fut bien obligé*

*de mettre les pouces* as "he had to be high-handed"—or *le voleur fit main basse sur l'argenterie* as "the thief was light-fingered on the silver"! To speak like the book itself, nous sommes en pleine pagaïe (i.e. "topsy-turvy").!

No doubt for the purpose of diminishing such danger, each expression is accompanied by a literal translation, but here is indeed a case of "traduttore, traditore." For after all, does "hell bent for leather" really mean *foncer vers l'enfer pour le cuir*?—or does *avoir l'esprit de l'escalier* mean "to have the spirit of the staircase"? (No doubt the spirit that haunted the staircase of Combourgl!) And what is that *vie de bâton de chaise* that "a chair-rung" would lead? To know the difference between a *barreau* and a *bâton de chaise*, one should ask Mascarille. And is there quite the same meaning in *enfoncer une porte ouverte* as in "to carry coals to Newcastle"? Doesn't English have the expression "to hammer at an open door," and doesn't French have *porter de l'eau à la rivière*? The very special sense of *mélanger les torchons avec les serviettes* does not appear in "a pretty kettle of fish," in French: *c'est du propre!* . . . nor that of *faire danser l'anse du panier* in "to pad the bill." "To do something half-heartedly" means that a person hangs back from the job, and does not correspond to *faire quelque chose à la six-quatre-deux*, which means doing it hastily. For a final example, I think it is flattering a *wolf* to attribute to him a *cœur*—even *un cœur d'artichaut*!

We have said enough to put teachers and students on their guard against a work which, we repeat, may do considerable harm in inexperienced hands. But, you will say, this book is intended only for amusement! Alas, we pedagogues are not here just to have a good time.

VINCENT GUILLON

Smith College  
Northampton, Mass.

KLINCK, GEORGE A., *Allons Gai! A Topical Anthology of French Canadian Prose and Verse*. The Ryerson Press, Toronto, Canada, and Bruce Humphries, Inc., Boston, Mass., 1945. Pp. X, 154. Price \$1.25.

Although *Allons Gai!* is amply provided with exercises based on the texts presented, it is primarily, as its sub-title states, an anthology designed to acquaint students in English Canadian schools with some of the social and cultural traditions of their French-speaking compatriots, and thus pave the way for better understanding between the two leading races in Canada.

In a sense, this unpretentious little book goes beyond the limited audience to which it is addressed, for it may conceivably prove of interest to American as well as to Canadian students. Similar collections illustrative of Spanish American and Brazilian life and letters have been welcome additions to our foreign language text-books. It is high time that French-American civilization should be presented to teachers and students of French in this country.

This anthology is in no way comprehensive, nor is it presented as such. Except for a few illustrative passages which the compiler has borrowed from contemporary French-Canadian writers, *Allons Gai!* contains nothing representing modern and urban French Canada, aspects of this region which are fully as real and quite as significant, albeit less picturesque, than its traditional and rural character. The latter, it is true, has been the greatest source of literary inspiration in Quebec, so far. Moreover, as Dr. Lorne Pierce, Editor of The Ryerson Press, writes in the *Foreword*: "It is a first book. . . . A second will no doubt follow to complete the scheme. . . . There is emerging another Quebec, daughter of time and change, affected by many currents of thought and life that are moulding the rest of Canada." There is no occasion therefore, to carp at Mr. Klinck's decision to limit himself in this volume, to a few traditional themes. On the contrary, he should be congratulated for choosing deliberately to emphasize the folkways of a *living* people instead of dwelling exclusively, as so many others have done, on "The Glory that was New France."

By means of short illustrative texts culled from the vast stores of French-Canadian litera-

ture and folklore, Mr. Klinck has sought to convey to his readers certain fundamental characteristics of the French-Canadian people and he has placed in relief a few of the basic institutions on which French-Canadian civilization rests. The title *Allons Gail* is taken from a French-Canadian folksong, and it strikes the keynote of the French-Canadian character, that gaiety which the French pioneers brought with them from France in the first years of the 17th century, and which neither distance nor time have dimmed in their present-day descendants.

There is no doubt that in his efforts to combine a representative anthology with the requirements of a text-book for language students of high-school age Mr. Klinck has had to face great difficulties some of which appear to have been insurmountable. For instance, he has been limited in his choice of selections, although not of authors, by the necessity for having very short texts, not necessarily the best nor the most dynamic or entertaining. Moreover, he has been prevented by the very nature of his plan, from presenting his selections in the order of their difficulty.

The least satisfactory aspect of this book, however, is its physical presentation, and this can be remedied, no doubt, in a later edition. For example, it seems unnecessary to have placed the short biographical sketches or explanatory notes which accompany each selection immediately after passages to which they have no reference and, moreover, to have separated them from those which follow and to which they refer. The effect of confusion and monotony which results from this arrangement is enhanced by the fact that these explanatory passages which are in English are printed in the same characters as the French texts.

MARINE LELAND

Smith College  
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DE SAUZÉ, E. B., *Using French*. Henry Holt and Company, New York, 1945.

This is a work-book of practical exercises in the use of the French language. Idiomatic expressions and irregular verbs, which are grouped in carefully-arranged units at the beginning, are to be employed in filling blanks or answering questions in the subsequent sections, the page-numbers of which are indicated for the respective units.

Within its modest dimensions, this booklet manages to cover a surprising amount of ground. A wide variety of conversational situations will be found in this collection of exercises for practice in idiomatic French. As a means of testing a student's mastery of the language, the filling-out of these blanks will show rather definitely his degree of acquaintance with a good many things.

LOUIS FOLEY

Western Michigan College of Education  
Kalamazoo

RUBSAMEN, WALTER H., *Literary Sources of Secular Music in Italy (ca. 1500)*. University of California Press, Berkeley and Los Angeles, 1943. 82 pp. Price \$1.25.

One of the most exquisite art forms ever to result from the union of poetry and song, the 16th century secular madrigal has always shared, along with 16th century sacred music, the tribute paid to the fruits of the Golden Age of Polyphony. But while the development of the sacred music of this time has been capably traced by many writers the growth of the madrigal has not been made so well known, in that the contribution of some of the foremost Italian Renaissance figures to secular music has suffered a certain neglect, and it is the purpose of this book to deal with this phase of the art form's history. It gives a clear and sensitive picture of the growth of secular music during the period from 1470 to 1520.

Beginning with a general background of the form and content of the *frottola*, the name

given to tonal settings of secular poetry of the period, this book tells how the verses of Lorenzo de' Medici, Sannazzaro, Michelangelo, Bembo, Castiglione, and other noteworthy contemporaries of the Italian Renaissance were harmonized, and the part they played in secular music. Many of Italy's foremost poets contributed to this literature, and the author has tried to segregate and identify works by men of accepted literary rank among the flood of material of this kind, much of which is inferior.

During the quattrocento cultivated poets copied the form and content of the most popular verse schemes of the people, the *strambotto* and the *barzelletta-frottola*, and created a pseudo-proletarian literature, associated with tonal settings. One of the most important influences on the artistic growth of these songs was Isabella d'Este, who loved music so that she had musical symbols sculptured into the walls of her room. She knew and corresponded with all the important poets of her time, and continually begged them for verses, which she then had her musicians, including the prominent Trombocino and Cara, set to music. It was largely through her efforts that Petrarca became the favorite model, and that the canzone began to replace the popular forms.

Serafino Aguilano, Prince of Strambottists, won great renown, and spent much time in Isabella's circle—he established the prevailing taste on popular verse, so that his last years were called the "Age of Serafino." He and Lorenzo de' Medici, a most artistic popular poet, are discussed together with various members of their circles. But Isabella most of all favored the poets who tried to revive the ideals of the trecento, and she raised the level of secular music by causing to be set the poems which she received from Correggio, Tebaldeo, Bembo, Sannazzaro, and Ariosto—the "Literary" poets.

After a chapter on the insertion of *frottole* into dramatic representations, the book ends with a discussion of the trend of these artistic forms toward the madrigal, and the author makes the very discerning remark that the fully formed madrigal is the creation of Netherlanders, not Italians: that homophony is the real keynote of Italian music, and that the polyphonic techniques evident in Frescobaldi or Palestrina are like the scattered and alien examples of Gothic architecture in Italy. He points out that as the *frottola-canzone* of the transitional decades progressed toward a fuller expression of the polyphonic style, those Italians who had led the march left the procession. This calls to mind the interesting theory which has been advanced that part-singing is the natural product of the early tribal communities of northern European peoples, rather than a product of the south. The volume closes with a number of most interesting musical examples and with an extensive bibliography.

CONSTANT VAUCLAIN

*The Curtis Institute of Music*  
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PORTER, BEN, *Flores, Angel: Franz Kafka. A Chronology and Bibliography.* Houlton, Maine, 1944.

There is no doubt that this pamphlet is a labor of love, nor is there any doubt that a good Kafka bibliography would be a most welcome aid in the growing Kafka interest and research. However, in spite of all the good intentions of the author of this pamphlet, a scholarly bibliography still remains to be written.

This booklet is divided into two main parts, the first of which is *Chronology*. The second part, *Bibliography*, is again subdivided into four parts: 1. Works by Franz Kafka. 2. Translations into English. 3. Translations into other languages. 4. About Kafka. A short prefatory note, while throwing a few bouquets in the direction of some American critics, is rather disparaging in its reference to Max Brod's biography of Kafka and Herbert Tauber's *Franz Kafka, eine Deutung seiner Werke*. Also, in the first paragraph of his preface the author makes some rather sweeping statements concerning the great influence Kafka is purported to have exerted internationally on contemporary literary figures of note. This reviewer, at least, would have appreciated a sentence or two going beyond the mere statement of such influences.



As grateful as Kafka students should be for this contribution, the bewildering amount of misprints and misspellings, and the lack of consistency in giving titles is so overwhelming that it makes the use of this booklet difficult even to readers who are not exactly neophytes in the field. The titles of Kafka's works are stated partly in German and partly in English, and partly again in English translation with the original titles in parentheses, without any evident reason. This confusion in listings holds true of most of the *Chronology*. Also, in this part of the pamphlet practically all umlauts are left out, only to return with fair regularity in the *Bibliography*. The chronology which admittedly is based on Brod's biography abounds in most distressing and confusing misspellings, viz.: K. lives at the sign of the *Golden Gecht* (p. 6), whatever a *Gecht* may be. On page 7 there is a *Terienkolonie*, which probably was meant to be read as *Ferienkolonie*. On the same page Steglitz is listed as a suburb of Prague, instead of Berlin. And what is supposed to be *Gesprach mit dem Better?* (p. 5). Disconcerting in the *Chronology* are also statements as: "exempted from military service because of semi-governmental job" (p. 6). Nothing more is said about this particular job while others held by Kafka are adequately explained. Equally disturbing is the laconic item *Crisis* (p. 7) without as much as one word of explanation as to the nature of this particular crisis. It seems to this reviewer that if a chronology is given at all it should serve to enlighten and not to confound the reader, otherwise the reader would have been better off without any biographical data. The bibliography proper, beginning on page 8, also abounds in misleading misspellings. Umlauts are printed or omitted at random. A partial list of misspellings will illustrate the reviewer's distress: p. 8. Der Sorge des Hausvaters. Der Schlag ans Hofter. p. 9. Reistagebuchnotizen. Der Truppenaushebung. Synegoge. p. 13. emscheinbarer. p. 14. Kurt Wolf. p. 17. Pragere. Vor den Desetz. Judische Almanach auf der Jahre 5687. etc.

As to the actual content of the bibliography, it is very difficult these days to check whether, especially, newspaper feuilletons are listed completely. It struck this reviewer as odd that among the translations only those in French, Spanish, Italian, and Norwegian were listed besides the English. To be sure, the author states in his prefatory note: "The present monograph is merely a notebook and balance sheet. I have culled some chronological notes from Brod, and put together the references I have collected in the course of years of tracking down everything by or about Kafka in every language. No doubt many omissions will be found. . . ." Of the histories of contemporary German literature only the English edition of Eloesser is listed, but neither Hans Haumann nor Guido K. Brand's *Werden und Wandlung*, to mention but two, who, to be sure, do not treat Kafka at great length; but then, neither does Eloesser. Horace Gregory's recent monograph on Kafka in the New Directions series probably had not yet been announced at the time of the writing of the present pamphlet.

May it be said in conclusion that the Kafka student will gratefully accept the aid of this booklet for the time being until a definitive, more carefully edited bibliography becomes available.

ADOLF D. KLARMANN

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Philadelphia, Pa.

SIMS, E. R., *Español esencial con historias*. Austin, Texas: W. S. Benson and Company, 1944. 372 pp.

The unusual make-up of this textbook is certain to cause comment. The 372 pages are divided approximately as follows: sixty pages are devoted to *historias*, written in simple Spanish and dealing with Hispanic lands in the New World, twenty pages are devoted to *ejercicios*, twenty-five to an appendix, and the remainder, or two hundred twenty-five pages, is devoted to vocabularies. A further examination of the *historias* shows that fully one-third of the space given them is taken up with illustrations and another third, or perhaps a little less,



is given to questions on the Spanish text. This leaves no more than twenty odd pages of text material.

In view of the above facts it would seem that the vocabularies are somewhat formidable in relation to the amount of material to be studied. This book is evidently centered about the problem of word study, but there is not much clue in the author's preface as to the use to which he himself intends to put his material. The vocabulary is said to contain 7500 words and to have been based on word counts. This is exclusive of "all of the generally used forms of the simple tenses of the indicative mood of the first 400 high-frequency verbs of the Buchanan list." This vocabulary seems huge, yet the author says "a satisfactory working vocabulary in any language may be acquired by the mastery of a relatively small number of words if these words are carefully chosen." He later continues "with a vocabulary thus carefully selected, one should be able to acquire a working knowledge of Spanish without having to deal with a large number of strange words of infrequent use." The reviewer agrees wholeheartedly with this statement of the case, but since this book as it stands is little more than a sort of word list, the practical use to which it may be put is not clear.

L. CLARK KEATING

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Washington, D. C.

COLLINS, HELEN B. and MORALES, MURIA T., *Contrastes*. New York: Henry Holt and Company, 1945. Price, \$1.36.

This is a very practical, down-to-earth reader, designed for early use in the first year. It was written by two successful high school teachers and is pedagogically sound. The language is simple but at the same time idiomatic. One of the most interesting points in the book is the fact that eleven songs are given. These simple songs are such that all the students can readily learn them and remember them long after they may have forgotten the uses of the imperfect subjunctive.

The book, written by high school teachers, is especially valuable for students of high school age. This does not mean, of course, that the book is not suitable for college students. On the contrary, the subjects dealt with are interesting to almost any student, regardless of age. The characters which are introduced are young, however, and the book would have its widest appeal with youngsters of fourteen, fifteen, or sixteen.

The idea of showing how life is in the countries to the south of us and how it differs from our own is a most excellent one. All students of Spanish at one time or another have many questions about life south of the border. The authors capitalize on this natural curiosity to give us a very interesting, readable and practical text. The text is well planned. There are fifty lessons in all, with a review lesson at the end of each ten chapters. Two especially interesting chapters show a Quaker Oats advertisement taken from a Spanish-American newspaper, and the comic strip of Mutt and Jeff. While most of the lessons bear out the idea of contrasts there are others which treat on many other subjects. There are stories, lessons on history and geography, etc. The first two stanzas of *Los Caballos de los Conquistadores* by Santos Chocano are given.

The main purpose of *Contrastes* is to give our students information about Spanish America, information they naturally want, and not statistics on the number of barrels of oil produced annually in Venezuela. Another purpose undoubtedly is to increase the oral ability of the students. This is done in a number of ways. The simplicity of the subject matter, its appeal, the simple but idiomatic vocabulary, all of these make oral use easy. Added to this are exercises especially designed for oral work. These exercises include completion sentences, questions on the text, etc.

*Contrastes* should prove interesting and at the same time very practical in furthering the

interest and knowledge of our young students of Spanish in things South American. More than that, it should prove most helpful in conversational and oral work at an early period of study.

M. E. NUNN

University of Alabama  
University, Alabama

HAGBOLDT, PETER, LEOPOLD, W. F. and MORGAN, B. Q., Stökl's *Der vergessene Koffer* and *Vom Bübchen vor der Himmelstür*. Wildenbruch's *Das edle Blut*. Graded German Readers, Books VII and VIII—Alternate. D. C. Heath & Co., New York, 1944. Price \$.20 each.

The names of Hagboldt, Leopold and Morgan have become the hallmark in the field of German language texts. Books VII and VIII of the Alternate Series are but added proof of this standard quality. These reading texts are not only welcome but also necessary additions particularly for those teachers who have been using the Heath-Chicago Graded German Readers. *Der vergessene Koffer* and *Vom Bübchen vor der Himmelstür* by Helene Stökl of No. VII are of a substance refreshing and appealing undoubtedly to younger readers. *Das edle Blut* by Ernst von Wildenbruch of No. VIII, this reviewer feels, has long been overdue.

The editors again, as in previous instances, have retold these stories with the same expected caution keeping careful balance on repetition of old material and introduction of new vocabulary. The footnotes briefly explain and translate the latter. The pedagogical worth of this method, apart from the textual worth, is realized in the systematic building and gradual acquaintance with grammatical forms while the text itself leaves the student with the feeling of the completeness of the German language as such.

Thus both booklets increase the student's vocabulary with an added 211 items and 40 idioms, which bring the total of the whole series to 1376 and 190 respectively. Of this vocabulary about 97% or 1150 words are to be found among the starred words of the Wade-Puhl-Morgan Minimum Standard German Vocabulary and of the Purin Standard German Vocabulary. Of grammatical forms No. VII explains subjunctive and passive constructions only on first occurrence; in No. VIII the knowledge of these forms is taken for granted, but examples are extensively used.

Introducing the Vocabulary at the end of each booklet the editors use a simple understandable method in explaining the characteristics of nouns and verbs. Only one addition should be made: the editors with the text of No. VII (p. 29) and under *heute* and *Nacht* give only one translation for *heute Nacht*—last night, which may be a very singular usage as far as this story is concerned. The student, however, ought to be informed of this exceptional meaning. These books will recommend themselves by their sound pedagogy and careful workmanship.

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STROEBE, LILIAN L., *The Teaching of German at Vassar College, 1905-1943*. Poughkeepsie, New York: Bulletin of Vassar College, Vol. 34, No. 2, March 1944. 43 pages.

After teaching almost four decades at Vassar College Miss Stroebe on retiring presents a picture of those busy years and evaluates the results. Departmental records and personal diaries furnish her with the necessary data, while reminiscence often comes to her aid. She gives great credit to Professor Marian P. Whitney, who, she feels, initiated many successful ideas that later found quite general acceptance. Miss Whitney emphasized elementary German and German literature, but she also introduced courses in Germanic philology and in

Middle High German. The members of the teaching staff encouraged extra-curricular activities, plays, picnics, the German Club, the Journal Club and clubs for outside reading. In their spare time they made valuable contributions to research and published several textbooks. Of these, we may safely assume, *Emil und die Detektive* is known to every teacher of German in this country. After Miss Whitney's retirement in 1929 Miss Stroebe as chairman of the department continued the thorough work of her predecessor until 1943. An outstanding accomplishment of Miss Stroebe was the founding of the Summer School for German at Middlebury College in Vermont. The success of this institution led to the establishment also of schools for French, Spanish and Italian at Middlebury.

This bulletin on "The Teaching of German at Vassar College" has a value for every teacher of German. It discusses courses in a stimulating way, it stresses the value of the study of German and it outlines briefly the trends of language methodology in America for forty years. Occasional comments on matters of teaching, size of language classes, examinations and the like, give evidence of Miss Stroebe's mature judgment. She retires from active service as an optimist: she is leaving the department in good hands and is hopeful for the future. It almost seems that someone else in the staff, unhampered by modesty, should have told in more detail of Miss Stroebe's own work and zeal in the cause of teaching German. However, we who have read the language journals through the years, we know!

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WHITFIELD, FRANCIS J., *A Russian Reference Grammar*. Harvard University Press, Cambridge, Mass. 1944. Price \$2.50.

This is a desirable addition to the bumper crop of Russian text-books turned out lately in this country, but it can hardly be put into the hands of a beginner unless he has in him the elements of a future Armin Vambéry.

The auto-didactical student may be driven away just by the difficulties of pronunciation as they are stressed in regard to certain sounds: "I like *l* in field, but articulated with tip and blade of tongue against upper teeth or alveolar ridge and with back of tongue contracted as in pronouncing *w* of wall" (p. 23). For the transliteration of the Russian alphabet the author adopted the system of the Croatian alphabet which seems to fit well the demands of an unambiguous transcription.

But to teachers, both Russian and American-born, to advanced students and to those who may, in the course of years, have lost their contact with their native soil, the *Reference Grammar* will render good services. Elementary Russian grammars published in Russia for Russian-speaking people cannot evidently be used by foreigners. Russians are aware of all these apparent irrationalities of their mother-tongue; and their philologists have developed classifications and groupings which are intended to answer all the whys and wherefores of the intricacies of stress accents, cases, moods or tenses. To have made these paradigms, charts, classifications, dispersed through various works on Russian and foreign philologists, available to the American student, is the main merit of Mr. Whitfield, a former pupil of André Mazon in Paris.

It does seem to the reviewer that while adapting charts from such ponderous Russian sources like Dahl or Ushakov, Mr. Whitfield would do well to thin them out and weed out obsolete words.

The *Grammar* contains a chapter on old orthography, before the spelling reform of 1917, and brings us up to the rules regarding the treatment of nouns made by abbreviation, like *SSSR*, or *ODN*, or *Nep*.

The important but often neglected and violated rules of accentuation get full attention, and each chapter on flexional variations is followed by one concerned with consequent changes in accentuation.

Paragraph 18 and 20 of notes on pronunciation contain pages which may do much towards refuting the general and wide-shared opinion that in the Russian language each letter represents always the same speech sound.

The conjugation of verbs is treated comprehensively in the 43 pages forming one-fourth of the whole text. The author adopts a classification of twelve categories of verbs with further subdivisions. The rules contained in paragraphs 119c, 123-125, 129 could usefully have been clarified by examples.

For reasons previously mentioned the circulation of the *Russian Reference Grammar* is apt to be limited but in view of future editions of this now mere typescript-text, the reviewer would like to indicate a few errata and suggest possible improvements. In a book covering such a subject there are always inevitable slips and inequalities not to mention typist's errors, like "skilko"—p. 79, or omitting reference on p. 121 to endings of verbs as explained on p. 115.

On p. 139 (par. 134) some forms carry erroneously two accents. V. also on pp. 12 and 97, the word "disevli" with different accentuation.

On pp. 112-113 (par. 113) the difference between productive and unproductive prefixes is not explained, the same terms being for classes of the verbs in par. 128 without definition.

On p. 103 (par. 94) the author gives the comparative degrees of adverbs derived from adjectives but omits to refer to the previous chart for the latter on p. 96 (par. 89). But on p. 99 (par. 90) this chart figures in full in reference to the irregular long superlatives.

These difficulties began when the author decided to subdivide the general chart published by Ushakow (par. 128) in his four-volume *Dictionary* (Moscow-Leningrad 1934-1940) into various chapters of his *Reference Grammar*, namely on irregular short comparatives, irregular long superlatives and finally the superlative degree of adverbs.

The 35 pages of the Appendix provide refreshing material on the uses of cases, tenses and moods consisting of quotations from Russian classics.

The Index Verborum is highly important in such a reference work; but a few omissions are noticeable which could be easily included.

The use of the reflexive possessive pronoun *svoy* is not explained at all, which is surprising considering the mention it gets in all other text-books.

These are suggestions for eventual future editions which are dictated by a feeling of sympathy for Mr. Whitfield's labor and the work he has just produced.

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PATRICK, GEORGE Z., *Intermediate Russian Reader*, Selected and edited with vocabulary. New York, Chicago. Pitman Publishing Corporation, 1945. Pages vi+327. \$2.25.

This is undoubtedly one of the best Russian readers that have appeared in the United States and it may well prove to be the most serviceable, even of the series edited by Professor Patrick. There is an excellent choice of material drawn from representative authors of both the Soviet and pre-Soviet periods. The stories, poems, and one act plays are well selected to give the student a good view of the Russian life and character and at the same time are sufficiently lively to hold the attention of students. The volume is well printed and the vocabulary seems complete and adequate. The book should be a boon to many teachers of Russian and we can only wish it real success.

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## Books Received

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### MISCELLANEOUS

- Haber, Tom Burns, *Handbook of Basic English*, D. Appleton-Century Co., N. Y., 1945. Price \$1.25.
- Hsi-En Chen, Theodore and Chung Chen, Wen-Hui, *Elementary Chinese Reader and Grammar*. Distributed by David MaKay Co., Philadelphia, Pa.
- Steinbaum, Israel, Bridger, David; and Mark, Yudel, *The Vocabulary for the Beginner Class of the Yiddish School in America*.
- Gargilis, Stephen, *The Path of the Great* (An Adaptation of the Epic Poem *Erotokritos*). Athena Publishers, Boston, Mass. Price \$2.75.

### FRENCH

- Simenon, Georges, *Malempin*. Editions Variétés, Montreal.
- Roberts, Adolphe W., *Les Français aux Indes Occidentales*, Editions Variétés, Montreal.
- Goll, Claire, *Arsenic*, Editions Variétés, Montreal.
- Princesse Bibesco, *Images d'Epinel*, Editions Variétés, Montreal.
- Mossé, Robert, *La France devant la Reconstruction Economique*. Brentano's, N. Y. 1945. Price \$1.00.
- Breton, André, *Arcane 17*. Brentano's, N. Y. 1945. Price \$1.50.
- Téry, Simone, *Où l'Aube se lève*. Brentano's, N. Y. 1945. Price \$2.75.
- Nizer, Louis, *Que faire de l'Allemagne?* Brentano's, N. Y. 1945. Price \$1.75.
- Lacour-Gayet, Robert, *Les grandes crises de l'histoire de France*, Editions Variétés, Montreal.
- Barney, W. S., *Practical French Review Grammar*, Prentice Hall, Inc., N. Y. 1940.
- De Sauzé, Emile B., *Using French* (A Workbook). Henry Holt & Co., N. Y. 1945. Price \$.72.
- Picard, Roger, *Artifices et mystifications littéraires*, Editions Variétés, Montreal.

### GERMAN

- Werfel, Franz, *Jacobowky und der Oberst*, Edited by Gustave O. Arlt, F. S. Crofts & Co., 1945. Price \$1.60.
- Geissendoerfer, Theodore and Kurtz, John W., *Deutsche Meisternovellen*. Revised Edition. Prentice-Hall, Inc., N. Y. Price \$3.00.
- Bohning, Elizabeth Edrop, *The Concept 'Sage' in Nibelungen Criticism* (Ph.D. Thesis). Times Publishing Co., Bethlehem, Pa.

### PORTUGUESE

- Rossi, P. Carlo, *Portuguese, The Language of Brazil*. Henry Holt & Co., N. Y. Price \$3.00.
- Educação—Boletim do Departamento de Educação*. Janeiro a Junho, Vol. XXI, numbers 42 and 43, São Paulo, Brazil.

### RUSSIAN

- Patrick, George Z., *Intermediate Russian Reader*. Pitman Publishing Corporation, N. Y.

### SPANISH

- Tatum, Terrell Louise, *Pan American Business Spanish*. D. Appleton-Century Co., N. Y. Price \$2.50.

- Holmes, Henry Alfred and Arratia, Alejandro, *Spanish America at Work*. 1936.
- Castellano, Juan R., *En busca de oro negro*. F. S. Crofts & Co., N. Y. Price \$1.25.
- Orozco, Martfnez, *Quince centavos—Un día de vida en Buenos Aires*. Edited by Henry Kurz. Henry Holt & Co., N. Y. Price \$2.00.
- Cabat, Louis and Fanning, George, Jr., *A New Approach to Spanish—Second Year*. American Book Co., N. Y. Price \$2.12.
- Boletín Bibliográfico Argentino* (Julio-Diciembre) Comisión Nacional de Cooperación Intelectual Nqmero 16.
- Cuervo, Rufino J., *Obras ineditas*. Ministerio de Educación Nacional. Instituto Caro y Cuervo de Bogotá. Editorial Librería, Voluntad, S.A., 1944.